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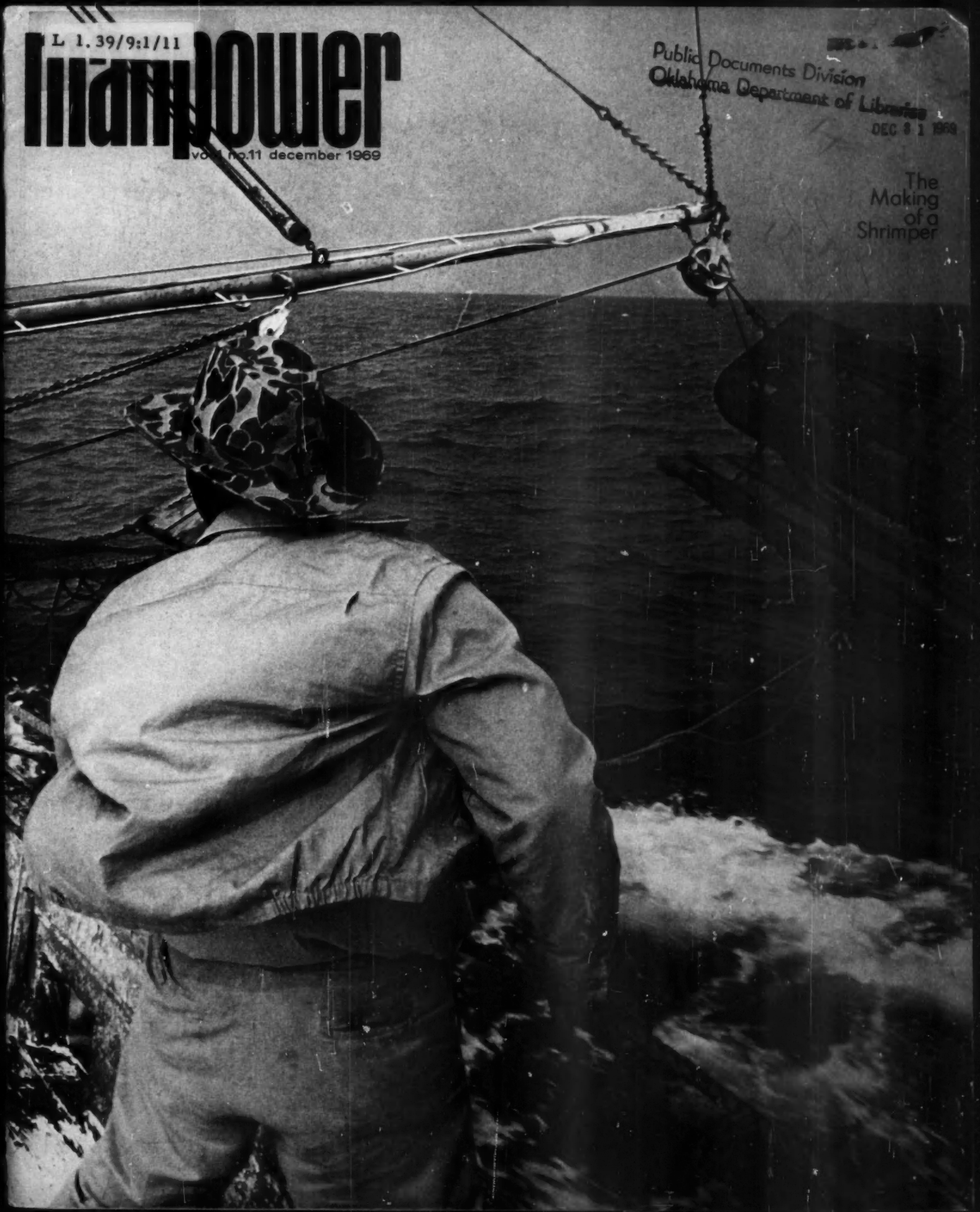
The Making of a Shrimper



manpower

Sea Fever

I must go down to the seas again, to the lonely sea and the sky,
And all I ask is a tall ship and a star to steer her by;
And the wheel's kick and the wind's song and the white sail's shaking,
And a gray mist on the sea's face, and a gray dawn breaking.

I must go down to the seas again, for the call of the running tide
Is a wild call and a clear call that may not be denied;
And all I ask is a windy day with the white clouds flying,
And the flung spray and the blown spume, and the sea gulls crying.

I must go down to the seas again, to the vagrant gipsy life,
To the gull's way and the whale's way where the wind's like a whetted knife;
And all I ask is a merry yarn from a laughing fellow-rover,
And quiet sleep and a sweet dream when the long trick's over.

John Masefield

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Manpower Research—
the cutting edge of policy

By ELI GINZBERG

The congressional appropriations for the first year of the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) in 1962 were slightly over $50 million. Eight years later the annual price tag of Federal manpower legislation is about $2.5 billion, 50 times as large.

It has been forgotten that the MDTA was enacted to deal with a problem that really did not exist. At the end of the last decade leaders in academic and public life feared that the high and rising unemployment rates were a reflection of large numbers of skilled workers being shunted aside by automation. The MDTA was designed to give these putative victims of automation an opportunity to learn different skills and thus again obtain gainful employment.

Eli Ginzberg, Ph. D., professor of economics and director of the Conservation of Human Resources Project at Columbia University, is chairman of the National Manpower Advisory Committee.

The error these leaders made was to confuse technological unemployment with cyclical unemployment. Cyclical unemployment rose to a high level in the early 1960's because of failures in general economic policy. But the economy gained momentum as early as 1963 and helped to put the picture right. When the MDTA was amended in that year there was only minor concern over automation's effects on employment.

The first half of the sixties also was characterized by lack of knowledge about manpower in a dynamic economy. During these years, one group of expert advisors saw every difficulty in the labor market as a reflection of weakness in general demand. An opposing group argued with equal vehemence that many manpower problems reflected "structural difficulties" which could not be remedied by improvements in general economic policy.

In time, the Council of Economic Advisers, which had believed that its policies of expanding aggregate demand would soon sop up all underutilized manpower, found it had been in error. Similarly, as the boom continued after 1966, the structuralists learned that the tightening of the labor market was the most potent factor in bringing relief to many, if not all, who had earlier encountered difficulties in finding jobs. Once again, lack of adequate knowledge about manpower and the economy was responsible for errors in designing and implementing policy.

In recent years the academic journals have been filled with discussions of the Phillips Curve which purports to relate the level of unemployment to price changes. "Experts" range from those who believe that the relationship between the two is fixed to those who deny that there is any relationship between them. These disagreements are not matters of interest solely to the academic fraternity; they are critical to national economic policy. Here, too, our knowledge remains grossly inadequate.

From David Ricardo to Milton Friedman, economists have analyzed the workings of money and credit. Until recently, with a few notable exceptions such as Adam Smith and Alfred Marshall, manpower has been of only peripheral concern to the economics profession. In fact, the terms "manpower" and "human resources" entered the language only during World War II.

The simple fact is that during the past decade manpower policy was shaped and reshaped in the United States in the absence of a body of research capital—theory, institutional information, and qualified personnel. A closer look at the individual elements of this policy will illuminate the gap between the assumptions on which decisions sometimes have been based and what we actually know or need to know.

The forerunner to the MDTA was the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 which committed Federal funds for the first time to the training and retraining of unemployed and underemployed persons in depressed areas. In 1965 Congress passed the Economic Development Act, which broadened and deepened the commitment of the Federal Government to assist the economic growth of backward regions.

In the interim we have become aware of the extent to which the problems of the large cities reflect the displacement of problems from depressed rural areas. Large numbers of jobless and marginally employed people have drifted into the major urban centers where many of them have had difficulty in adjusting to the more sophisticated labor market and patterns of urban living. One of the objectives of President Nixon's proposals to place a Federal foundation under welfare payments and to narrow the differences in benefits among States is to stem the redistribution of the poor from deprived rural areas into our urban centers.

But what do we really know about the determinants of regional and local growth, about patterns of mobility, and about facilitating the absorption of newcomers? The answer is very little. Since manpower research is a new field, most of the work to date has been centered around broad national issues on the one hand and small local studies on the other. The big middle ground has been largely ignored.

We know that most States have development commissions to attract industry and expand employment but there have been no critical studies of their effectiveness; we do not even know the

Manpower Research
continued

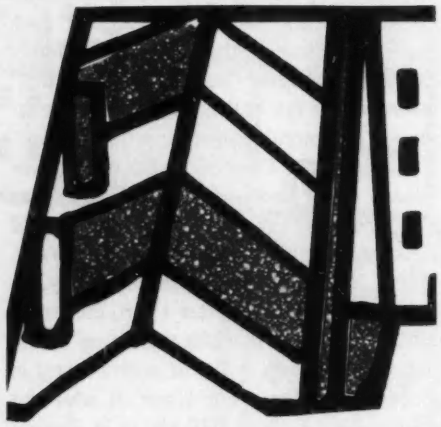
appropriate criteria to guide such an assessment. The systematic analysis of metropolitan labor markets to gain more understanding of the role of manpower in economic growth also is in its infancy. The Administration's proposed manpower act, with its strong push toward decentralizing responsibility to the States and the localities, adds urgency to the need for disaggregation studies.

When the newly appointed members of the National Manpower Advisory Committee were waiting to meet with President Kennedy in September 1962, they were made privy to some legislative history by Vice President Johnson who told them that one of the principal objectives of the MDTA was to provide training opportunities for Negroes so that they would not remain permanently in the ranks of the unemployed.

Most MDTA amendments and allied manpower legislation enacted since 1963 have been overtly focused on the hard-to-employ, among whom members of minority groups loom large. What do we really know about the critical dimensions of this problem? In recent years we have assumed that the hard-to-employ differ from other unemployed in terms of discrete characteristics such as race, education, prior employment status; that it is desirable to single out the hard-to-employ for special assistance; and that subsidies to private industry of up to $3,000 to $4,000 per man are justified to help train and employ them.

But there are doubts about these assumptions. Relatively few communities have large numbers of unfilled jobs that remain vacant for any length of time. Hence special efforts to assist the hard-to-employ may help them to advance in the queue to the disadvantage of other applicants. We have no firm knowledge about the scale and scope of private training or about the extent to which sizable Federal subsidies may turn out to be a substitute for private effort. And we remain largely in the dark about the potential ability of the hard-to-employ to move up the skill and income ladder after they have been trained and hired. We will have to wait until the economy levels off, as it now appears to be doing, and for other adjustments before we can get a reading on the long-range outcome of special training for the hard-to-employ.

A paucity of information also has plagued major programs to help disadvantaged youth, particularly the Job Corps and the Neighborhood Youth Corps. The limited evidence available about the Job Corps suggests that only a minority of those enrolled profited from their experience, a conclusion which helps to explain why this Administration decided to close certain training centers and to redeploy some of the money to alternative programs.



The high cost and low effectiveness that have characterized the Job Corps are perhaps less important than the fact that when the program was launched we knew little about why so many young people had reached the threshold of adulthood so poorly prepared for work or how they could be helped to overcome their defects. And on both scores we have learned much less than we should have for the $1.4 billion spent during the 5 years since 1965.

The slightly higher expenditures during the same period for the Neighborhood Youth Corps have also failed to answer such basic questions as whether the program has "held" young people in school or whether the out-of-school program has made any contribution to the orientation of young people to work through attitude formation and skill acquisition. It appears that in actual operation the program has served essentially as a mechanism for income maintenace.

Since the Watts riots in 1965, the country has increasingly viewed its manpower problems as problems of central cities, of poverty areas, particularly of ghettos. For several years, bills have been introduced into Congress to create millions of additional jobs to help absorb the unemployed and the underemployed who are heavily concentrated in ghetto areas. The bills have not passed nor are they likely to short of a major recession in which the unemployment rate would increase rapidly to 6 or 7 percent or more. But what do we know about the factors that determine the parameters of the urban employment problem?

In the last year in Harlem, there were signs advertising "Help Wanted." This suggests that the nub of the manpower problem for the ghetto population is not jobs but acceptable jobs. In the summer of 1968 the Conservation of Human Resources Project of Columbia University interviewed young people in Harlem between the ages of 18 and 24 who were not in school, not in the armed services, and not regularly employed. We learned that some of them, recently discharged from the armed services, were in revolt against the conditions they found when they returned home and refused to seek regular employment, even though several could have returned to civil service jobs paying between $2.50 and $2.80 an hour. Others who had acquired construction skills in the service looked high and low for openings, traveling across State borders to find jobs, but were summarily rejected because they had no contacts in the industry and they were black.

Some high school graduates and dropouts were not interested in full-time jobs. They were able to earn enough to support themselves through legitimate part-time work (on which they paid no taxes) and in illegitimate activities. Others did not know how to look for work other than to contact the local office of the employment service which often was not helpful. And several of the girls flatly refused to consider domestic work, even though they had no skills.

We need to know more about the extent to which the reported high unemployment rate, especially among young

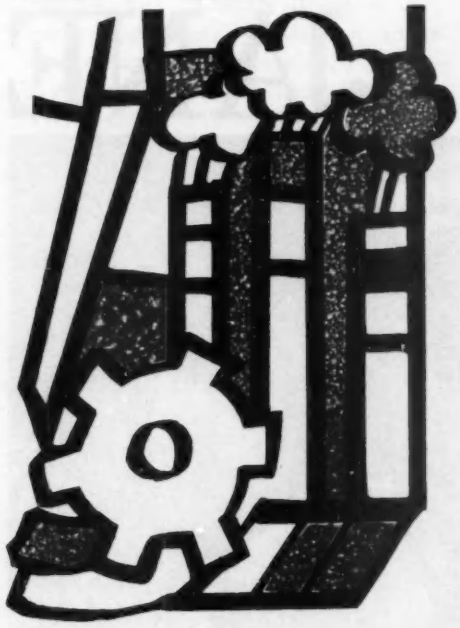
people in the ghetto, results from their refusal to accept jobs at the minimum wage.

Inadequate attention has been paid to the continuing role of discrimination as a factor in the employment of minority groups. Unless we probe beneath the surface, the implications of discriminatory practices are not easy to trace. There is a belief among informed persons that in certain major southern cities, such as Houston, there is a steady outmigration of able, trained Negroes who are blocked from advancing locally and a continued inflow of poor Negroes with little education and skill. The important point in this connection is the absence of longitudinal studies which alone would enable one to trace the employment experiences of particular groups of workers. As it is, we can only assess the operations of the labor market on the basis of cross-sectional analyses which do not answer many of the questions we must ask.

Another inadequately researched facet of the urban labor market is the relation between welfare and work. The new welfare proposals of the Administration have sought to be responsive to several hitherto largely neglected issues: How to assure that people on relief are encouraged to find employment; how male workers with low incomes can be encouraged to remain with their families and responsible for them; how to raise the standard of living of poor families without seriously disturbing the wage structure which encompasses many jobs that pay enough for a supplemental wage earner but not enough for the head of a family.

If this or some other new welfare program is adopted by the Congress, it will take considerable time before basic information becomes available and is analyzed to determine to what extent it is successful. We know too little about the changing attitudes of people toward work, welfare, and family responsibility, and about their determination to improve their standard of living. To complicate matters, we are dealing here, as elsewhere, with manpower policy and programs that operate in a continually changing political and ideological environment.

There is another arena in which research lags grievously. What do we know about priorities of the political leaders in the large cities in which so many of the minority poor are concentrated? These leaders have struggled long and hard to gain control over the sizable funds that the Federal Government has made available under various poverty and related programs. While they want to shift people from welfare to work, this is not necessarily their first priority. They have been more concerned in recent years with keeping their cities from going up in smoke, in keeping racial tensions under control.



Clearly, these considerations have influenced, in ways that have not been researched and evaluated, how funds from various manpower programs have been distributed. Moreover, the gatekeepers to relief—the social welfare staffers—have changed their behavior as the mood of the ghetto and the city has changed. The ease with which people can get welfare and the extent to which they are pressured to get off it have undergone significant changes in recent years. These issues do not lend themselves to easy study or appraisal, but much of what we need to know will remain out of our grasp until we learn more about them and how they are shaped by the interaction of politics, power, and psychology.

Another complex of problems connected with urban employment is susceptible to more conventional economic analysis. These problems relate to the location of new jobs, transportation, housing discrimination, and the entrance of mature women into the labor force. One position, based on limited research, holds that the relocation of desirable blue-collar jobs to the periphery of the city is hurting ghetto residents because of poor public transportation, housing discrimination in the suburbs, and the inclination of employers to fill the jobs by attracting white suburban women into the labor force. Acceptance of this view would suggest a change in the direction of government programs to aid the disadvantaged, with a shift in emphasis from training to transportation.

An opposing view holds that job opportunities continue to be concentrated in the inner city and that most suburbanites are not active competitors of ghetto residents for these positions. Some research supports this view. Regrettably, however, there are gaps in the analysis and evaluation of even such basic economic trends and data.

Despite the various information gaps already cited and the instances of the formulation and implementation of policy before adequate data and analysis were available, it would be a mistake to delay action solely on the basis of the need for more research. If a nation is to prosper, it must act on what information is available. At the same time, research efforts should be expanded.

We cannot afford to remain in the dark about such crucial questions as the net impact of our training effort on an expansion of employment, whether many of the urban poor lack an opportunity to work or resist working at jobs that do not pay a living wage, and whether many problems facing the ghetto population have been misread as manpower issues while they may in fact reflect maladjustments in transportation and housing.

Research is no panacea. Nor does it assure the formulation of sound policy and improved programs. But the obverse is equally true: With more and better research the prospects of improved policy and programs are greatly enhanced. In light of this, earmarking for research 1 to 2 percent of the annual $2.5 billion being spent for manpower programs, as suggested by the National Manpower Advisory Committee, is not unreasonable. □

GOODBYE TO DICK AND JANE

New Approaches Help Minority Children of Southwest Leap the Language Barrier

By Ron Hamm

Remember the refrain that alarmed parents and pedants alike a few years back: "Johnny can't read!" That old song is still sung but the lyrics are new—"Johnny can't talk!" And they are being heard in the mountain and desert classrooms of the Southwest, in the ghetto schools of New York's Spanish Harlem, in the crowded refugee centers of Florida's Dade County, in the migrant fruit pickers' camps of Michigan and Oregon's Willamette Valley—any place, in fact, in this "melting pot" country of ours where English is not the native or first tongue. The new lyrics apply to many of the estimated 5 to 6 million people residing in the United States for whom Spanish is the first tongue, and to many Indians and others who cannot communicate in the standard language of this country. And the reality behind the song helps account for the high rate of joblessness among Indians and Spanish-speaking Americans.

Bilingualism is not new to the United States, nor to other nations. Canada has its millions of French-speaking citizens and the country actually conducts its daily business and social life in two tongues; our Latin American neighbors are trying to assimilate their vast Indian populations into the mainstream through conversion to oral Spanish. But in case you haven't experienced the "aloneness" resulting from speaking a foreign language in your own hometown, eavesdrop on this classroom scene that occurs over and over again in Albuquerque, Laredo, Miami, or New York:

Brown-skinned youngsters, their dark eyes gleaming with anticipation and excitement, push through the doors of their new school and rush into class along with other first-grade kids their age and size, but not necessarily of the same complexion or cultural persuasion. "Good morning, children," says the teacher, "let's all sit down and start to learn." Hector turns to Luisa, his face expressing doubt and confusion. Neither he nor the girl has understood a single word the teacher uttered because she said it in English.

On the first day of school—a day that ought to be a happy occasion—these children run into trouble. Being unable to speak or understand English had not particularly bothered them before, because

Mr. Hamm is public relations director of the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory.

English was not the principal language of their homes; their mothers and fathers spoke Spanish, as did their grandparents and all their friends. They were even able to see movies in Spanish.

But now they were in a different environment, one in which English was a necessity. And because Hector and Luisa, or Indian-speaking children who find themselves in the same predicament, are not prepared to communicate in the unfamiliar medium of English, they soon become the victims of a self-fulfilling prophesy.

It works like this. Because the students do not understand the teacher and cannot make themselves understood, she begins to think they are stupid. Deliberately or unwittingly the teacher lets the children know how she feels. Sooner or later, they begin to believe the teacher's opinion, and stop trying. The teacher expects less and less of them, and no longer attempts to challenge them. Before long they not only are far behind (usually at least two grade levels behind their classmates by the fourth grade), but they have fewer of the skills a child needs for successful learning.

If the pattern is not reversed, these children either endure the misery of their school environment until the earliest possible moment they can escape it, or survive to be perennial flunk-outs. The result is the same: The students are branded as failures by their teachers, their peers, and more importantly, by themselves. Society, of course, reaps the harvest in terms of more unwanted, unskilled laborers, more delinquents, and bulging welfare rolls.

Fathers Have Poor Jobs

The fathers of these children, if they live in rural areas, usually scratch out a living as marginal farmers or as migrant farmworkers. A few work in the mines. Many are chronically unemployed. In the cities, they usually do custodial work or other low-paying jobs. The children who fail to get an education may follow in their parents' footsteps—if those jobs still exist when they are grown. Farming and mining are daily becoming more mechanized, and unskilled jobs of all kinds are becoming scarcer. The jobless rate for minorities is twice the rate for whites, and on Indian reservations it is almost 40 percent of the work force.

To attack this problem and other educational ills across the country, the U.S. Office of Education between February and September of 1966 established 20 Regional Educational Laboratories, of which 15 still are operating. The laboratories are private, nonprofit research and development organizations which function principally as contractors to the Office of Education. One of them is the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory (SWCEL) in Albuquerque, N. Mex., now in its fourth year of operation with a staff of nearly 100 under the direction of James L. Olivero and annual funding in the neighborhood of $2 million.

The primary task of SWCEL is to help "southwestern culturally divergent children (usually Indian or Mexican American) successfully negotiate the middle-class majority schools" through mastery of English. To achieve this end, SWCEL concentrates on developing—and training the teachers of these children to use—new materials and techniques. More than 500 teachers have been trained so far.

Most of the teachers in southwestern public schools are whites trying to instruct Indians and Mexican Americans without knowing anything about them. They pile on homework, without realizing that the hogans (adobe and brush huts) on the Navajo reservation have no electricity. Though the law in States like New Mexico requires teachers to be bilingual, in practice they generally are not, and therefore cannot communicate with children who speak little or no English.

The accumulations of failures and misunderstandings prove too much for many minority children. They fail—again and again—or they are passed through and out with little or no change in their ability to survive in the technological society of the white majority. Failure in grades 1, 2, and 3 sets the pattern for the rest of their schooling—if they stay in school, and many do not. The average southwestern Mexican American adult has an eighth-grade education. The average adult Indian has completed the fifth grade.

There is no single solution to the education problems of ethnic minority children, but some major causes have been isolated by SWCEL in its primary service area of New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, and Oklahoma. Language and dialect barriers are obvious hurdles to success in school. Few schools have texts or instruction in Spanish or Navajo. As a result, English is the schools' primary communication medium, and standard English is a foreign language for many Mexican American and Indian children.

Instructional materials used by the schools seldom refer to the environment and culture familiar to Mexican American or Indian children. They are asked to relate to ways of life considerably different from their own. Standard texts, for example, talk about Dick and Jane and skyscrapers, all outside the range of experience of most Indian and Mexican American children. They learn much easier when the lessons are about sheep, mutton stew, hogans, the desert, and the mountains.

Traditions Misunderstood

Failure of teachers to understand the traditions cherished by various southwestern Indian tribes is another barrier to learning, which often leads to situations like this:

A Navajo hogan—Billy Yazee, a 6-year-old Navajo boy, is listening to his father. The boy's grandfather has just left. "Billy, you mustn't look at grandfather's eyes when he talks to you. He's old and wise, and it is disrespectful to look in his eyes."

A teacher's lounge at Billy's school—Two teachers are discussing the new crop of first graders. "Notice how shifty they are, they never look you in the eye. You can't tell if they are listening to you or just being rude. The parents act the same way."

A classroom—Billy's class of beginners is having considerable trouble with the basic readers. They can't speak English yet, but the State course of study calls for reading instruction in English.

A school hallway—"I don't understand it, they simply don't seem to care about grades," says one teacher to another. "You should have seen those kids compete when I was teaching in Cleveland."

Teacher's office—Billy's father comes to school to see why Billy is so unhappy, why he'd rather stay home. The teacher explains that Billy simply won't raise his hand and answer the questions, even when he knows the answers. Billy won't do his homework, explains the teacher. In a parting gesture of friendship, the teacher gives Paul Yazee's hand a good, firm handshake and thanks him for coming in. The teacher feels a bit uneasy. Mr. Yazee

DICK AND JANE *continued*

didn't squeeze his hand. In fact, he sort of drew back a bit when the teacher gave him a firm handshake.

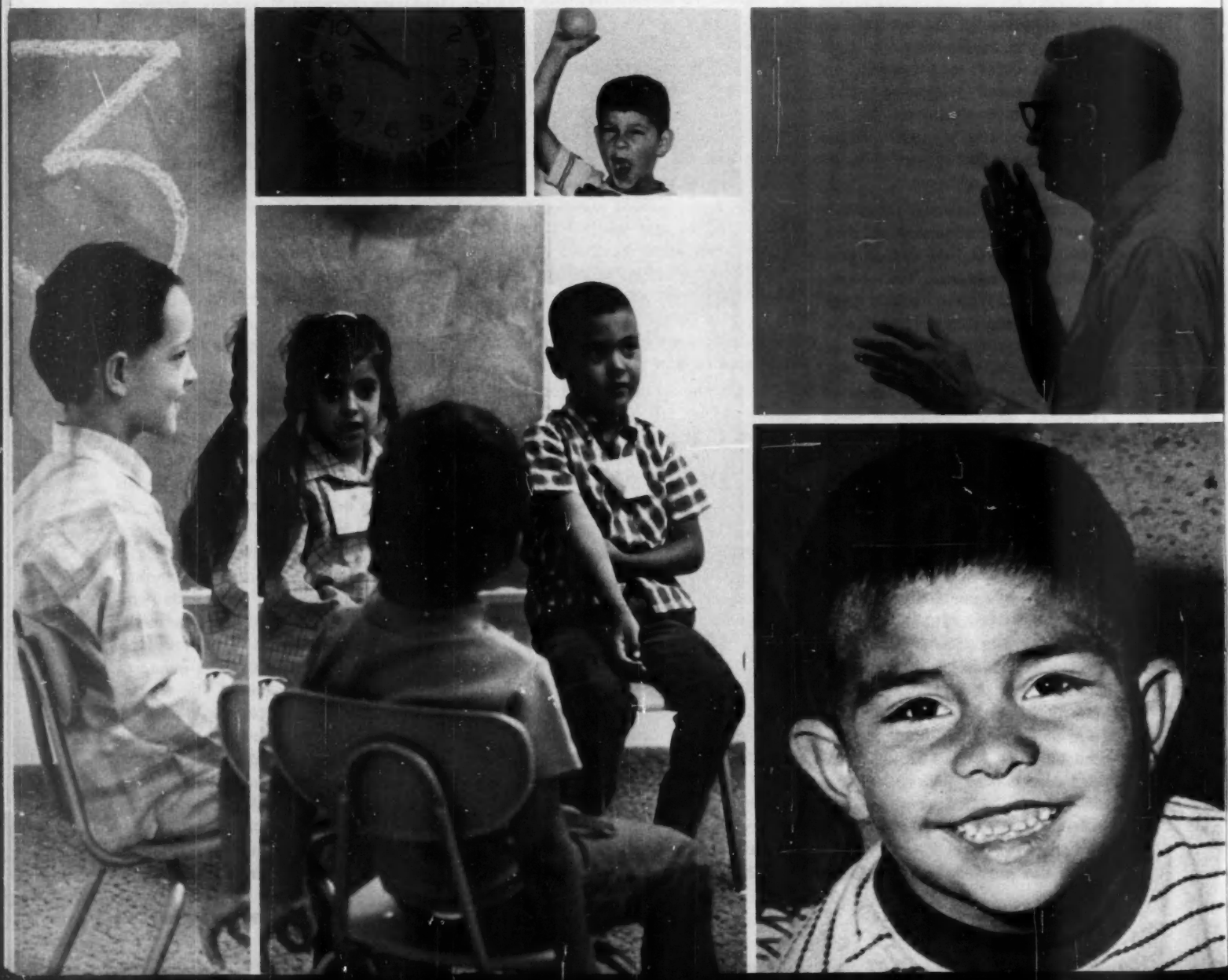
These illustrations show how communications can break down all along the line. Billy's teacher didn't understand the child's reactions, and vice versa. Nobody told Billy's teacher that his averted eyes are a sign of respect. And perhaps if Billy's teacher had taken some time during the first year to help him attain a conversational grasp of basic English, that first reader might have been a bit easier.

If the teacher concerned about the lack of scrambling for grades had known the Indians' negative attitude toward competition she might have been a bit more understanding. In fact, she might have used it to her and the children's advantage. The teacher concerned about Billy's not raising his hand probably would have understood had she known the high value Indians place on not showing up other classmates. As for the handshake, Navajos do not squeeze, they simply touch; it is part of their culture and tradition.

SWCEL combats these communication problems through its Communication Arts Program, the key components of which are oral language and reading. The Oral Language Program (OLP) began in 1967 in New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, and Oklahoma. It since has been extended to California, Utah, Iowa, Nebraska, and Mississippi and is expected to reach 9,000 preschool and first grade children during the current school year.

Teachers are trained in oral language techniques through a network of inservice institutes conducted under the auspices of SWCEL. By working with small groups of children, teachers learn the proper methods of oral language instruction. In addition to strengthening classroom techniques, the institutes also seek to alert teachers to the exact nature of the problems of children from culturally diverse backgrounds.

The learning difficulties of the children may stem from two sources, poverty or cultural differences. Poverty, for example, makes a child unwilling to postpone gratification. A middle-class boy promised a bike for Christmas knows his dad can produce. But a poverty child is pretty sure, from experience, that his father cannot. For him, postponing a gratification is the same thing as canceling it. So



strongly do the poor people of the West feel about this that Apache Indians working in one sawmill in northern New Mexico have to be paid daily. Their attitude is, "I did the work today, I must be paid today."

SWCEL trains teachers to take advantage of this trait rather than fight it. At the beginning of the school week the teacher may set a goal of successfully completing five lessons, with a trip to the zoo as a reward for reaching the goal.

This policy of quick rewards as a positive reinforcer for children can have its comic aspects. Many teachers think youngsters should come to school only to learn. They do not feel a child should be rewarded for what he does well. One such teacher, against her will, was being trained to compliment her students for good performance. When they recited their lessons accurately, she reluctantly growled, "Good." One day she forgot. Her pupil, a tiny Mexican American first grader, alarmed at being neglected, ran up and said, "You forgot to say 'good,'" and imitated her growl perfectly. The class fell apart laughing and the chagrined teacher learned a lesson in graciousness.

SWCEL has reached no final conclusions about cultural differences. Research indicates, however, that Mexican American children may learn best from conversation. Navajos learn by observing, a strong tradition with them. Down through the centuries Indians learned such tasks as how to shoot a bow and arrow from their fathers, who demonstrated how it was done, sometimes without a word and always without a lecture.

Letting children learn through the use of puppets combines visual and oral learning. Many of the boys and girls are unwilling to speak up in class on their own. But when given puppets to manipulate, and to make conversation for, they chatter away freely. One little boy refused to respond during a lesson when his teacher said, "Please give me back the orange." He agreed to give it to his favorite puppet who in turn gave it back to the teacher.

The OLP is designed to be used daily by one teacher with groups of up to 10 children, ages 5 to 7. Each lesson is about 25 minutes long. The emphasis is on question-and-answer games which often involve the handling of objects. The early lessons are short and simple conversation. Everyone sits in a circle. The teacher says to the first child: "What's your name?" The child answers, "My name is Luisa," then says to the second child: "What's your name?" And so it goes, around the circle. This method not only teaches the children the language but trains them to talk to each other.

Later lessons progress to longer, more intricate patterns of speech and conversation. In one lesson, for example, some of the children are given apples and others oranges. The first child says: "I have an apple. What do you have?" No. 2 responds, "I have an orange," then says to the third child, "What do you have?" and around the circle it goes. The use of objects reinforces the learning of the children.

Then come more complex lessons. The questions that make the circuit become more abstract: "What do you want?" "What do you hear?" and "What do you see?" And still later: "Hector, what is Luisa doing?"

Supplementary materials include films and other things the children can examine and talk about and "props" such as the hand puppets. The props are used in all 147 lessons, designed to be completed in 1 year.

The learning, even though it is done through games, sometimes causes the youngsters some anguish. One Indian child, involved in a chain dialogue during which he practiced the use of "take," "took," and "taken," suddenly burst out, "I never used so many words in my life."

The reading phase of the Communication Arts curriculum is still in the blueprint stage. Three steps are being mapped out: Entry skills, formal reading readiness, and reading. Materials and techniques are being developed for the first step that will help the preschool or first grade child learn taken-for-granted skills the white child normally picks up around home: The ability to follow a line of type from left to right and the ability to identify colors, for example.

The reading readiness step will include practice at more complex skills and in speech patterns found in the Oral Language Program. In developing the third step, the readers that are already available, including Dick and Jane, will be evaluated. Those which seem useful and relevant to the Mexican American and Indian children of the Southwest will be used in the actual teaching of reading. □

Former migrant farmworkers stream out of a SER classroom in Arizona's Maricopa County. They are taught entry-level job skills in an effort to break the cycle of poverty associated with seasonal farmwork.

BRIDGE TO THE BARRIOS

Geographically, the Mexican American neighborhoods of the Southwest—the barrios—may be only a few blocks from mainstream America. Economically and culturally, the distance often is enormous. To help make the trip, Mexican Americans have put together what Judge Alfred J. Hernandez of the Texas Corporation Court describes as a "lovely new machine." It is called Operation SER, for Service, Employment, and Redevelopment, or in Spanish, the verb "to be."

Essentially, SER is a self-help organization. It was developed and is run by Mexican Americans primarily for Mexican Americans. From a modest beginning in Houston, SER has grown into a five-State operation involving a broad range of manpower and related projects.

SER began taking shape in 1965 when Defense Department officials observed that few Mexican Americans were applying for jobs in plants with Government contracts. They suggested to the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) that it might tell people in the barrios about job opportunities with defense contractors, who are monitored by the Government to assure that they are equal opportunity employers.

SER's first office in Houston was open only part time and was manned by Mexican American volunteers, but it quickly demonstrated its ability to bridge the gap between the barrios and the personnel offices of local industry. The volunteers, who were bilingual, helped find work for a substantial number of Mexican Americans, including a few who were placed in jobs not traditionally open to them. Once the word spread, the little office was swamped with applicants and it was clear that there was significant potential in continuing and broadening the effort.

Representatives of the largest Mexican American service groups, LULAC and the American G. I. Forum, consulted the Department of Labor and the Office of Economic Opportunity on how they might develop further direct action to overcome employment barriers for barrio residents. The result was experimental and demonstration funding of Operation SER by the two agencies. SER was to pull together a staff to work with State and local agencies in developing new efforts focused on selected areas of high Mexican American unemployment. The objective was to see if participation by Mexican American leaders in planning and conducting new activities would strengthen the attack upon the employment problems of Mexican Americans in the Southwest.

Broad Range of Services

Over the past 3 years SER has developed a regional program for Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, where there are concentrated some 5 million Mexican Americans, or "Chicanos" as they often call themselves, most of them in low-income brackets. It operates local offices in 13 target cities where there are large numbers of disadvantaged Chicanos, and it has five State offices, and a regional office in Santa Monica, Calif. The Federal investment for training and other aspects of SER since 1966 has been about $15 million.

A SER corporation, Jobs for Progress, operates 22 manpower projects in the target cities. Projects vary according to local needs but typically include recruitment of unemployed and underemployed Mexican Americans, counseling, job-related language training, other general preparation for work, and referral to established agencies for medical care, social services, vocational training, higher education, and job placement.

Most SER projects also offer basic education below the eighth grade level. SER regional and State manpower banks provide ready information to match workers with jobs and help SER's administrators to keep tabs on the needs of program applicants. In addition, numerous on-the-job training activities are sponsored by SER under contracts with the U.S. Department of Labor.

SER's primary role is to supplement the work of regular social service and manpower agencies and institutions—to strengthen the ties between them and the Mexican American community. Judge Hernandez, a SER founder and past chairman of its governing board, has described the growth of SER efforts, and the growing willingness of public agencies to enlist the distinctive capabilities of minority organizations, as "a milestone in the Mexican Americans' progress from protest alone to purposeful program action to broaden opportunity for the disadvantaged Mexican American.

"We are supplying new directions in reaching, training, and finding jobs for the Mexican American disadvantaged," he said. "Take reaching. You can't persuade a 50-year-old migrant laborer to sit down in a classroom and read the Dick and Jane stories. But if one of his neighbors tells him—in Spanish—that he is learning basic English and that it is 'a good deal,' the migrant may be willing to listen, and be reached.

"SER prejob training is effective, too," Judge Hernandez said. "It is extremely hard to train the disadvantaged. The rosters of SER's prevocational classes include felons, alcoholics, epileptics, the very old, the crippled, and people who in one way or another are terribly handicapped. Poverty is something that is shared by all. Group spirit—even Mexican American group spirit, which is pretty strong—may not be able to get a man a job. But it does wonders in persuading him to stay in school where he can be trained for one."

To place people in jobs, SER has had to battle discrimination with one hand and raise the capabilities of seriously disadvantaged men and women with the other. One measure of SER's effectiveness is the 80 percent retention rate of its local on-the-job training projects. SER officials attribute this to individual counseling and support given trainees by members of their own ethnic group.

SER has been instrumental in placing 11,000 Chicanos in jobs, many of them in occupations previously closed to Mexican Americans and is now making about 600 placements a month. Thanks to the effective barrio grapevine, hundreds of other Chicanos have learned about and obtained on their own jobs opened up through SER efforts.

Project SUN (Step Up Now!) is one of the SER programs aimed at preparing former Mexican American migrant farmworkers for urban life. It is located in Maricopa County on the outskirts of Phoenix and serves people living in an area of about 100 square miles. Although agriculture still dominates the area labor market, modern equipment and techniques are cutting into the demand for unskilled farmworkers, while job opportunities are expanding in industry.

Bilingual Staff at Center

SUN reaches out for unemployed and underemployed Mexican Americans and draws them into its manpower center where a full range of training and supportive services is available. The center houses not only the bilingual Mexican American SUN staff but also representatives of State employment, education, and vocational rehabilitation agencies. Trainees start with a 2-week orientation program which includes development of an individual employability plan, a physical exam and minor medical services, referral to appropriate agencies for personal and family supportive services, and general prejob preparation.

Of the nearly 600 people served by SUN last fiscal year, 76 percent were Mexican American, 16 percent were Anglo American, and 8 percent were Negro. Like all SER projects, SUN focuses on the Mexican American disadvantaged but it does not turn away other disadvantaged persons.

After orientation, trainees are referred to jobs, remedial education, work experience, or a skills training facility run as part of the SER program by the Arizona Board of Education with Manpower Development and Training Act funds from the U.S. Department of Labor, where they learn such occupations as stenographer, auto mechanic, electronics assembler, cook, and welder.

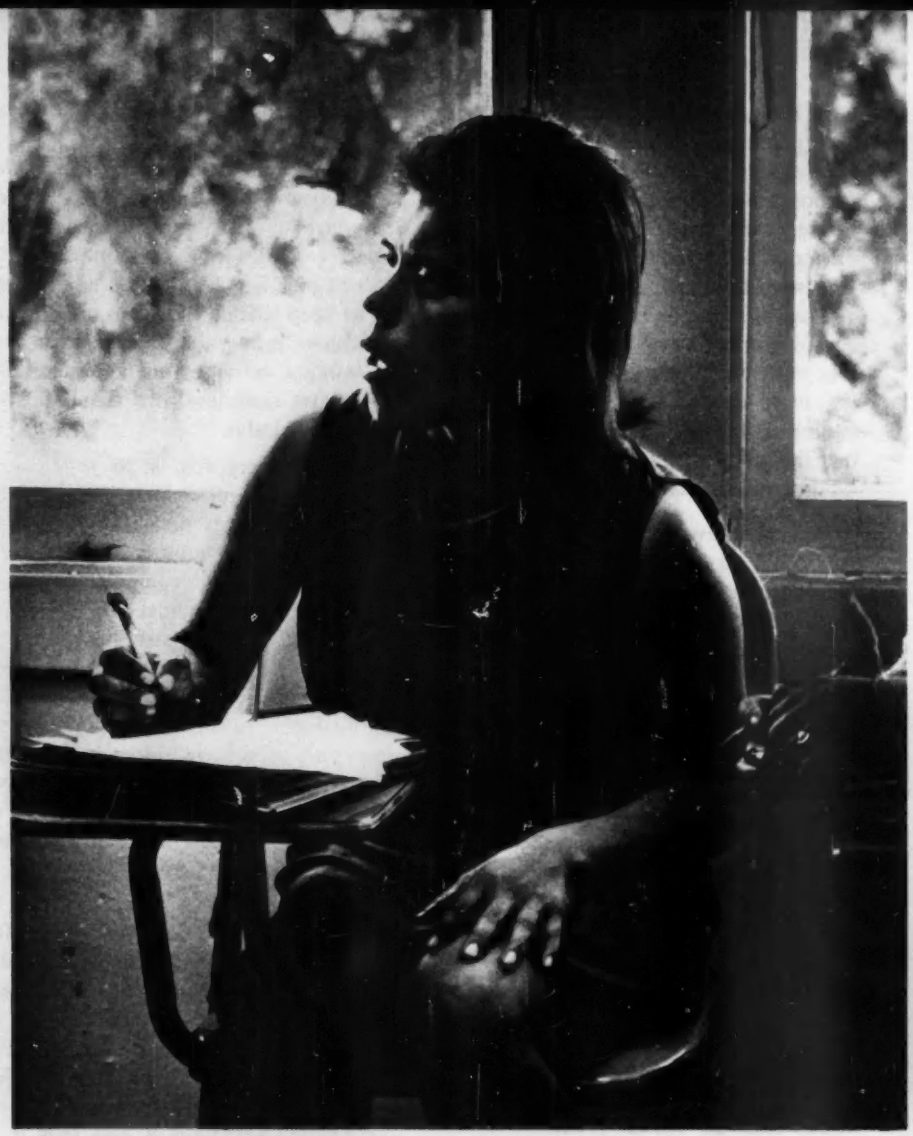
BARRIOS *continued*

One of the school's welding students is Perfecto Bejarano. He was born without a left hand, is unskilled, and has only an eighth grade education. When he came to SUN for help, he was harvesting onions, and he and his wife and four children were living in the wreckage of a truck trailer in the onion fields.

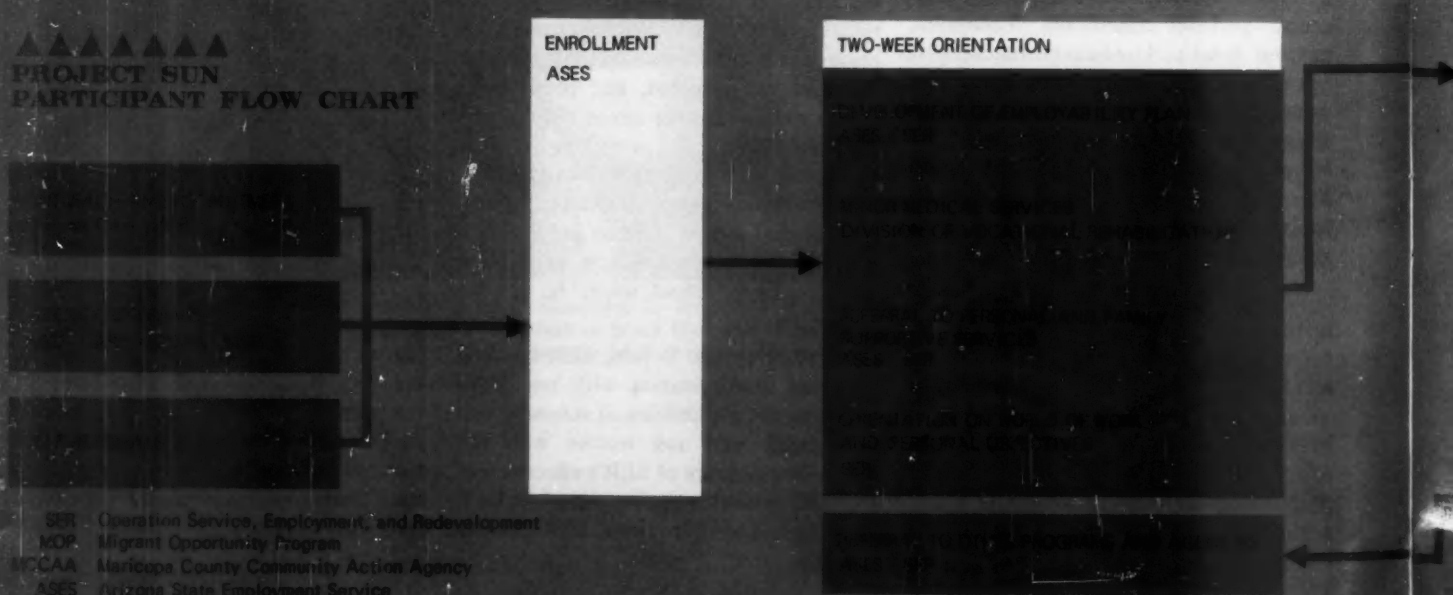
Bejarano was given 6 weeks of prevocational training during which the Arizona State Employment Service staff helped him decide on a new occupation, and the State Board of Vocational Education referred him to a local hospital where doctors fitted him with a hook to replace his missing hand. Then he was placed in a 6-month course in gas, arc, and helio welding. Soon he will have a license as a certified welder and will qualify for a job in one of the new Maricopa County industries.

In nearby Phoenix, Mrs. Rachel A. Mata also went to SER after three members of her family, including her husband, required major surgery and creditors took over the family's home and other possessions.

"I suddenly realized that I had become head of the household," Mrs. Mata said. "I had four small children and my sick husband to take care of, but I was a housewife with no job experience and only an eighth grade education."



Alicia Chapa listens intently to the instructor in an adult basic education class for migrant workers. She is now working as an electronics assembler.



Perfecto Bejarano discusses job openings with SER counselor Dorothy Perez. With a hook to replace his left hand, and newly acquired welding skill, he is no longer doomed to field work the rest of his life.

Rachel A. Mata was assigned to on-the-job training as a receptionist and interviewer in SER's Phoenix office.

She enrolled at SER's Concentrated Employment Center in Phoenix and received clerical training and the basic education to get a high school equivalency diploma. She is now drawing a paycheck for on-the-job training at SER as a receptionist and interviewer and is going to a community college part time. Her husband, now recovered, also is working in a job SER helped him get, and the family recently moved into a new home.

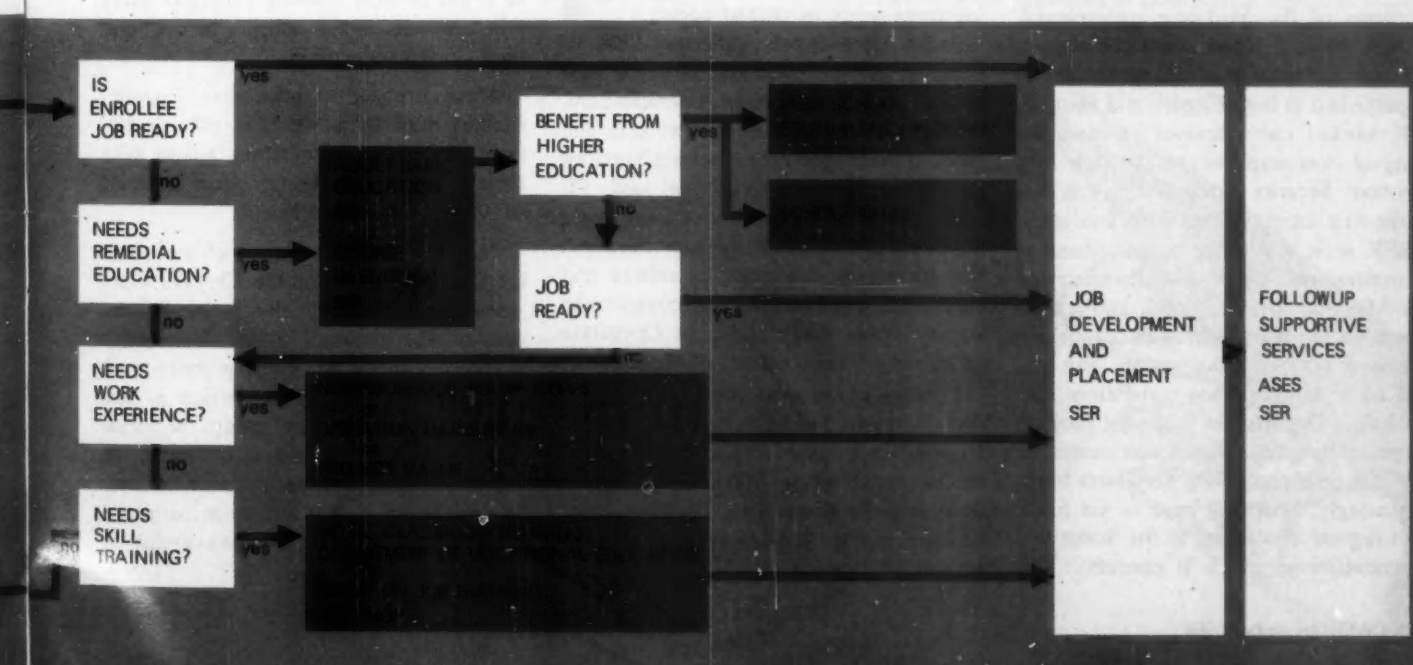
SER's path from its first office in Houston to its present five-State enterprise was littered with difficulties. One problem was finding and developing a cadre of bilingual Mexican Americans to work as professionals in the manpower field.

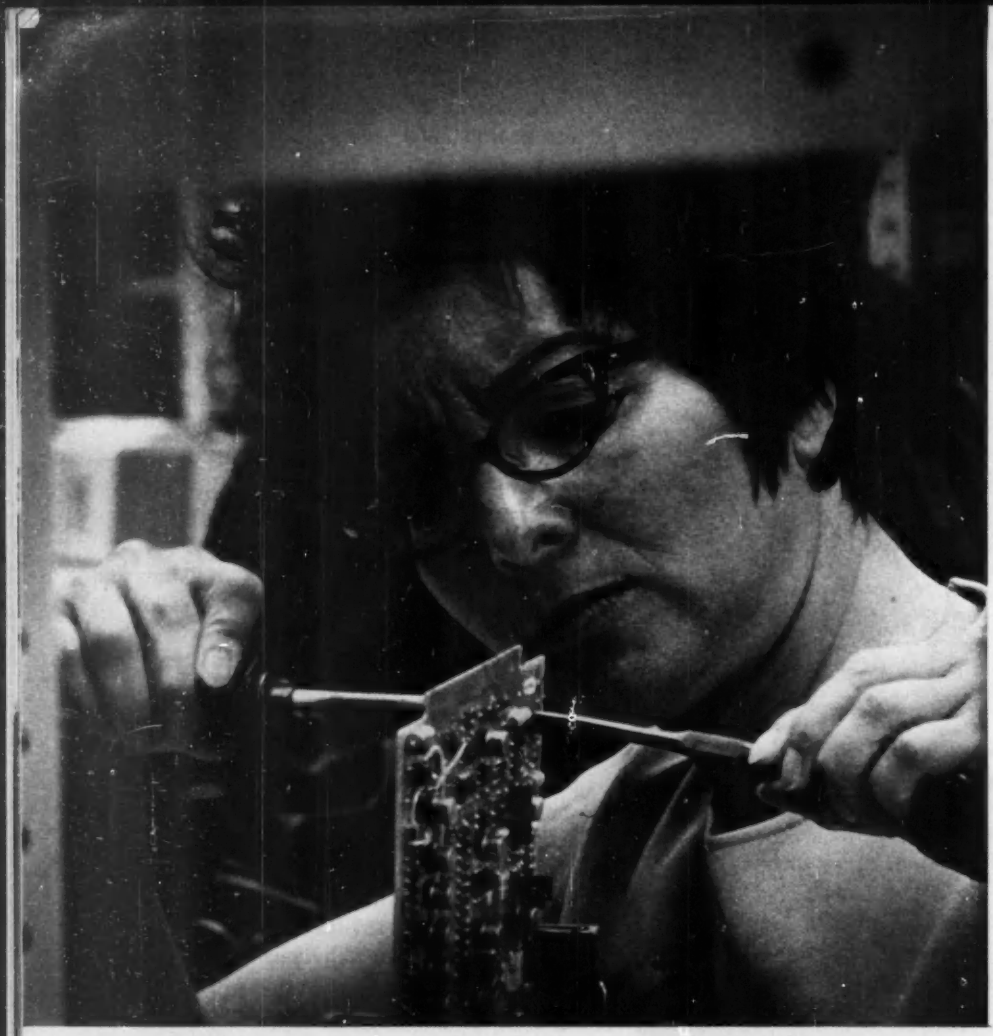
Another of SER's major problems was antagonism and misunderstanding by some employees of regular government agencies. "The red danger flags really started flying when we began to branch out," one SER staff member recalls. There was fear that SER was setting itself up in competition with regular public agencies.

Even when SER was greeted with friendliness rather than suspicion, Anglo American understanding of the Mexican American often was incomplete. SER officials remember—with amusement and dismay—that in the early days one solution proposed to them for breaking the pattern of poverty among Mexican Americans called for sending Chicano youngsters to school for 9 months in another State to separate them completely from barrio life—a rupture in family ties considered unthinkable by customarily close-knit Mexican American families.

Gulfs that existed 3 years ago are now pretty well closed. There is more understanding of SER's idea that to cure the employment ills of the Mexican American it is not necessary to kill his culture. Working together has led to mutual respect and cooperation between SER and the various agencies with which it deals.

SER frequently is called upon to advise agencies in planning, development, and operation of programs to cope with the problems of disadvantaged Mexican Americans. In Colorado, for example, the State employment security agency adopted SER's recommendation that Mexican American consultants be used to devise tests for Mexican Americans that take





Delores Chavez' training led to a $2.60-an-hour job in a Phoenix electronics plant.

into account their own language and culture. In California, SER works closely with the Human Resources Development component of the State employment service to develop innovative approaches to problems of the hard-core unemployed. In New Mexico, whose State constitution calls for all laws and official notices to be published in both English and Spanish, SER worked out a trainee program for bilingual stenographers and the State Employment Security Commission was one of the first employers to hire graduates.

SER soon will enter a new phase of its institutional life. It has demonstrated that Mexican Americans can add a vital dimension to efforts to help disadvantaged members of their own group. But the bulk of its financing has come from special Labor Department funds for projects of limited duration—funds that cannot be provided on a continuing long-term basis. Increasingly, SER will have to get funds from regular allocations to the States and communities in which it operates. This will test how strongly the various public agencies and private employers will embrace the relatively new idea of drawing on minority organizations for program operation capability rather than regarding them solely as protest agents.

Judge Hernandez indicates SER is standing on the threshold of some new enterprises. "The Mexican American community has created a professional and efficient mechanism for reaching Mexican American disadvantaged," he said. "It is natural now to think about what might be done with this lovely new machine. We know we can place plumbers and carpenters, but a modern and complicated society needs many skills. In Operation SER, we get some echoes of these needs.

"Corporations must comply with Federal contractual obligations and the Civil Rights Act to take affirmative action in reaching and hiring Mexican Americans as a step in eliminating discrimination. So they call us for highly trained technicians of all kinds."

To locate Mexican Americans to train for such opportunities, Judge Hernandez said, may require "that we track down the clever boy and girl inside an ethnic community with the same skill that others use to track down a man who has stolen an automobile. Why can't we grow a whole new crop of professionally trained, bilingual teacher-counselors who can guide youngsters to the available sources of help?"

SER officials point to studies showing that, on the average, Spanish-surname Americans have one-third as much education as other Americans and that less than 13 percent of all Spanish-surname persons reach high school.

One reason for this, SER officials maintain, is that school systems in this country have thus far failed to provide for the educational advancement of students with a different cultural background and, for the same reason, Spanish-speaking youngsters have failed to identify with the educational environment that surrounds them.

Education Stressed

SER already has an education project underway in Arizona—the High School Equivalency Program (HEP), funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. It is identifying, testing, and helping youngsters to qualify for HEP openings at the Catholic University of America, the University of Nebraska, and the University of New Mexico. Students returning home with a HEP degree are placed by SER in a job or skill training program while others remain at the colleges to continue their higher education.

More bridges to educational opportunities must be built, SER officials believe, if Mexican Americans are to take their place in industry as equal partners of their fellow citizens.

"Obviously, a fair sharing of the quota for General Motors or the Chrysler Corporation or anybody else is hardly the end of the dream," Judge Hernandez says. "It cannot be. Getting entry-level jobs in a fair ethnic proportion is not a proper goal for any group. Mexican Americans want their fair share, of course. They intend, as a matter of fact, to insist upon it. But a class in furniture upholstery, no matter how successful, is just the beginning." □

the making of a shrimper

By Leo Allman

Next to the martini, the shrimp cocktail may be the Nation's most popular appetizer. And while the precise recipe for the consummate martini is a matter of dispute, there is little argument that the right place to begin "mixing" a good shrimp cocktail is the Gulf of Mexico. The Gulf abounds in shrimp, but men who are ready, willing, and able to catch the popular shellfish are in somewhat shorter supply. So the U.S. Department of Labor is embarked on an effort to stock the Gulf Coast with more trained shrimpers.

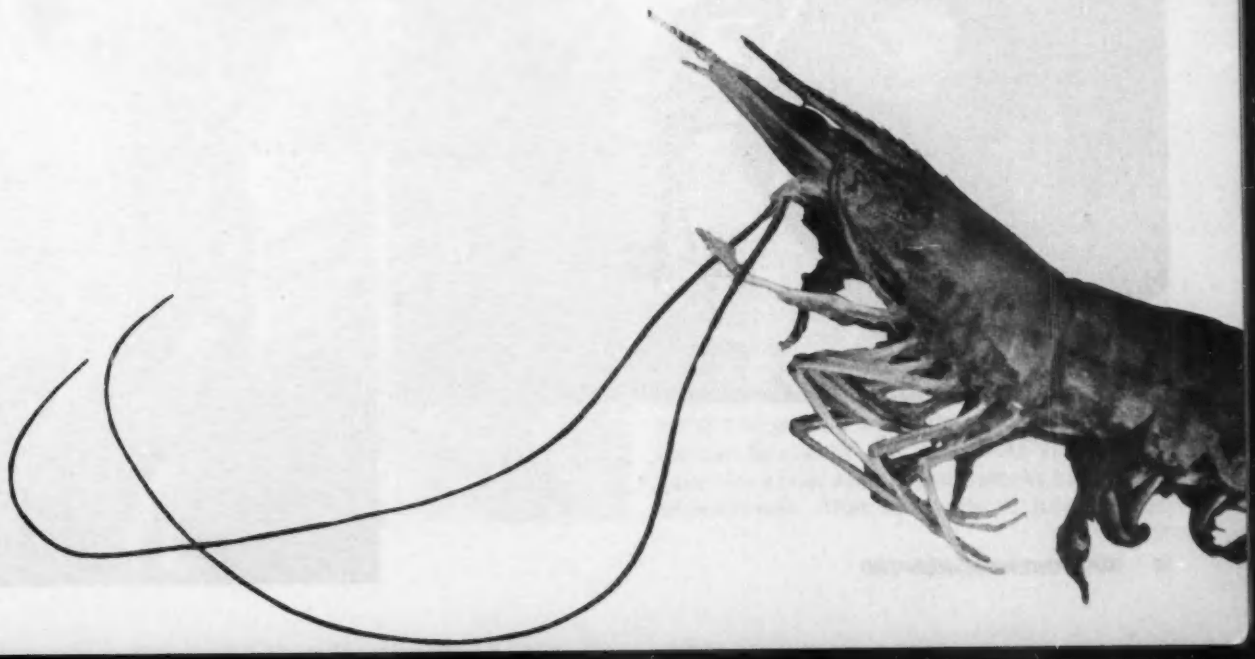
Under a Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) contract awarded to the Freeport (Tex.) Shrimp Association, a consortium of boat owners is sponsoring the program and placing qualified recruits on board their vessels during the on-the-job phase of the training schedule. Some 80 men have taken jobs and gone to sea since training began in February 1969, and 70 more will be trained. The total cost will be more than $471,000. Actual training is being conducted by Fitzgerald Laboratories, Inc., of Annapolis, Md., which has established a dockside training center at Freeport.

Groups of 10 trainees certified by the Texas Employment Commission enter the course of instruction at 2-week intervals. The first phase consists of 8 weeks of on-shore instruction at the training center, followed by 44 weeks of on-the-job training aboard boats of the shrimp fleet.

Once small and somewhat haphazard, the Gulf shrimp boat, or trawler, now averages some 60 feet in length and 80 gross tons in weight. With the growth in size, tonnage, horsepower, and accommodations, the Gulf fleet has almost completely converted from the single rig to the double rig operation. This means that the boats are capable of pulling a huge trawl on each side, and of lifting loaded nets from the ocean floor with the aid of winches and other mechanical equipment.

The trawls are 40-42 feet wide at the mouth, and catches in them can be huge. As they are pulled along the bottom, they scoop up all sorts of marine life. Once lifted to the deck,

Mr. Allman is the U.S. Department of Labor regional information director in Dallas.



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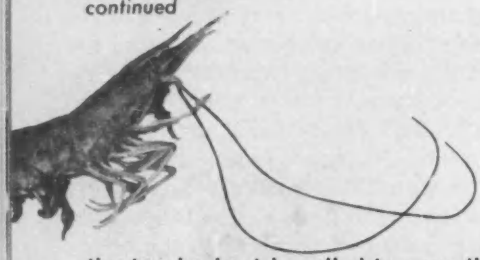
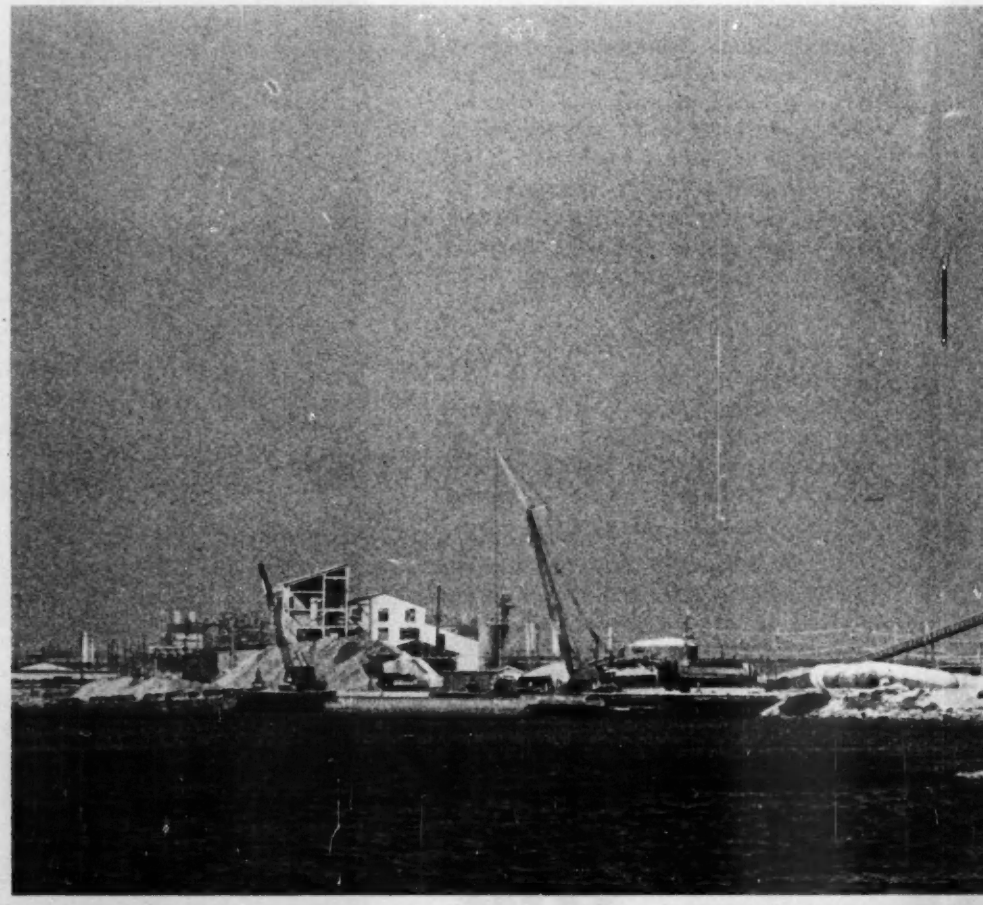
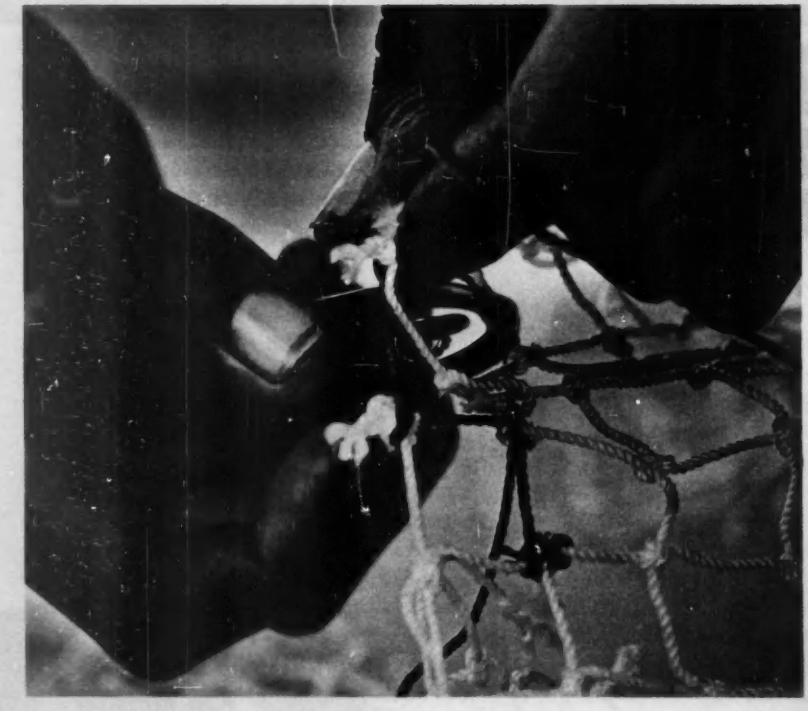


the trawler knot is pulled to open the cod-end and the catch tumbles to the deck where it is sorted. The so-called trash, consisting of most items in the catch except shrimp, is dumped back into the sea. The deck hands then behead the shrimp and pack the tails in ice.

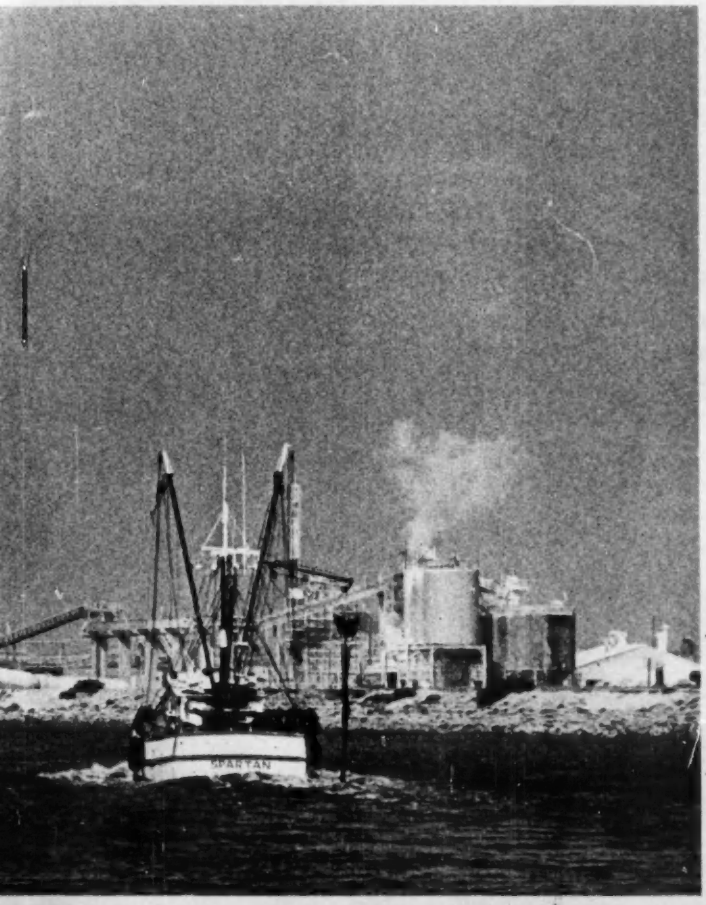
The training is divided into four parts. First comes classroom lessons in fundamentals: Seamanship, oceanography, navigation, communications, engine maintenance, trawls and rigging, net making and repair. Then the trainee gets practical experience in workshops at the center and on board a training vessel staffed by instructors with extensive experience.

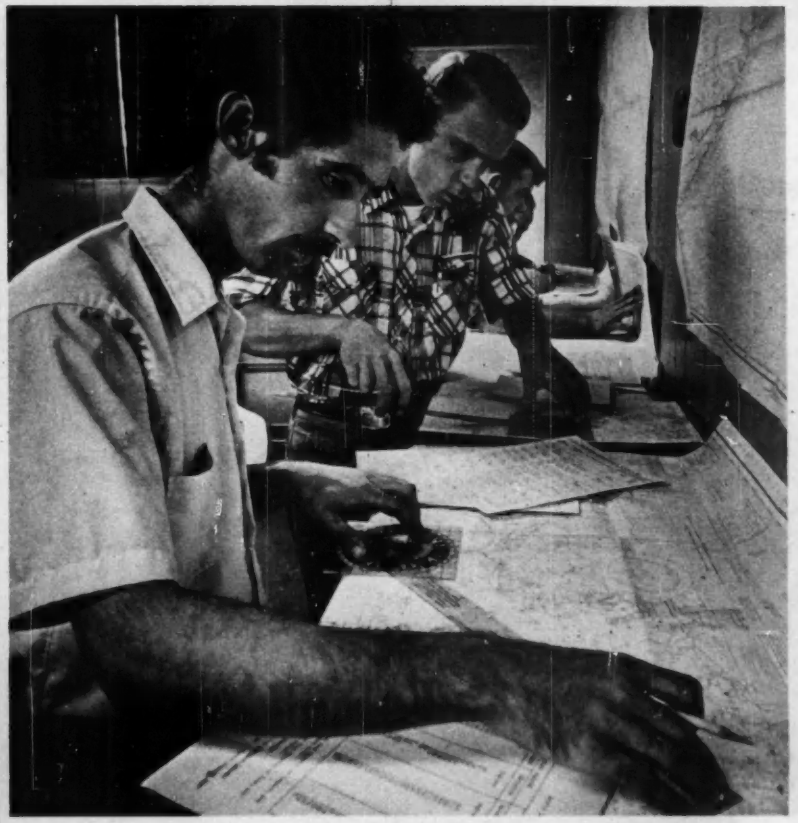
Next, he signs on a fishing trawler. There, under the supervision of an experienced fishing captain, he must get his "sea legs" and the experience at sea that will make him a competent shrimper.





Labor Dept. photos by Robert Moeser





Throughout the program, there is job adjustment and counseling to help trainees with discipline, adjustment to the sea, social skills, budgeting, and related problems. The center uses industrial psychologists and job counselors because many of the trainees have little schooling and scanty job experience. The average enrollee at Freeport has a sixth grade education.

The contract with the Freeport Shrimp Association calls for trainees to be paid at least $1.60 an hour during training and $5,000 annually afterward.

Many of the trainees are minority group members and all are disadvantaged. One 37-year-old Mexican American recruit, for example, is an ex-convict. He was jailed for shooting a policeman. Though he had never held a steady job, he was fascinated by the prospect of going to sea and proved to be a quick learner.

After 5 weeks training at the center he wanted to go on a boat. Because he had learned so rapidly, his instructors yielded and gave him a boat assignment 3 weeks earlier than normal. That was early in July. Since

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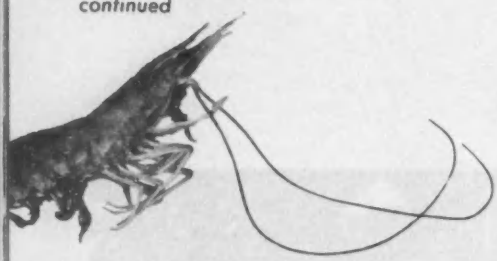


then he has had a new life. A recent 10 days at sea brought him about $300 for his share of the catch.

The pay of crew members depends on the size and price of the catch. In Texas, the season begins in late May, reaches a production peak in July and August, and gradually trails off till the season ends in January or February. A typical off-coast vessel with a three-man crew may be at sea 4 to 20 days and return with a cargo of 2,000 to 6,000 pounds (heads off weight), currently bringing about $1 a pound at dockside.

The boat owner, depending on how expenses are divided, keeps 60 to 67 percent of the gross receipts. The rest is divided by the crew. Again, depending upon how expenses are paid, the captain may receive 55 percent of the crew's share, and the rigman (or mate) 45 percent. Out of their own pockets, they pay the third man, the header, 3 to 5 cents a pound for the entire catch. Under a second arrangement, the captain receives 40 percent, the rigman 35, and the header 25, with expenses split three ways. A third plan, called "splitting the deck," gives the captain half the crew's share and the remaining half is divided evenly between the other two men, with expenses split three ways.

Since the spring of 1967 the Labor Department has funded four projects to train 430 shrimpers in the Gulf at a cost of nearly $1.3 million. The additional trained manpower is desperately needed by an industry that can no longer come near meeting the demand for its product.

The average American now eats twice as much shrimp as he did in 1950, and total consumption soared to 389 million pounds in 1968. Domestic production once accounted for about three-fourths of U.S. needs, but last year 54 percent of the catch was imported.

With prices and profits on the rise, the industry is growing. The total U.S. shrimp fleet in 1966 was 3,742 vessels, 2,942 of them in the Gulf. Total manpower was 9,194, with 7,466 shrimpers working the Gulf, not enough to put three men aboard each boat. Yet, it is estimated that in 1967 alone more than 400 vessels were added to the Gulf fleet. Consequently, scores of boats stand at the docks along the coastline for lack of experienced crews to take them out. The disorganized, fragmented industry recruits men where it can, and many of the "seamen" are inexperienced roustabouts who quit after picking up some "walking around" money from one or two trips.

The shrimp, which usually spawns in the fall, is a prolific shellfish. The female lays from 500,000 to 1 million eggs, which hatch within 24 hours. Parent shrimp do not guard their young, so marine animals of all sizes and shapes feed on the eggs and young shrimp. However, each spawning generation produces billions of eggs, so enough shrimp survive to maintain a huge adult population.

Clearly, the shrimp are doing their part. All that remains is to develop the skilled manpower to move them from the ocean floor to the American dinner table. □

Manpower Administration and the New Federalism

By Arnold R. Weber

On August 8, President Nixon unveiled what he called the New Federalism. The occasion was the announcement of the Administration's domestic program encompassing the reform of the welfare system, revenue sharing, the restructuring of the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the proposed Manpower Training Act of 1969. The President's message had dramatic substantive implications that were bound together by a new concept of defining relationships between the Federal Government, the States, the cities, and other local communities. The national manpower program and welfare reform—which has heavy manpower components—were proposed as the vehicles for the establishment of an exciting new venture in American government. The fact that the employment security system has operated effectively as a Federal-State system for over 30 years gives manpower programs a special relevance in any effort to define and articulate the New Federalism.

What does the New Federalism mean in the context of manpower programs and policies? In a very specific way, the New Federalism in the manpower area is articulated in the provisions of the proposed Manpower Training Act of 1969. It is difficult, however, to extract ideas from the complex prose of a statute which has the additional rhetorical handicap of being the product of a long series of discussions and negotiation within the Administration.

The New Federalism in the manpower area means that a maximum attempt will be made to use the resources derived from Federal taxing powers to serve local needs. Moreover, this concept contemplates placing maximum reliance on local governmental institutions for planning the use of these resources and the actual administration of programs. This means, in turn, that Federal programs will not flow down from Washington like manna from heaven to be used by local agencies and authorities independent of the programs' relationship to local needs. The relevance of this approach to the planning and administration of manpower programs, which ultimately must be rooted in the local labor market, is too obvious to require amplification.

To be sure, current arrangements do provide for some local planning and administration. Both the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) and the Community Action Agencies (CAA) established over the last 5 years testify to good intentions in this area. But the experience with CAMPS has been highly variable: In some instances it has been an effective device for developing coordinated manpower programs at the local level; in other instances it has been little more than a stapling operation, binding together the disparate plans of different agencies with a common staple. In addition, although the CAA's do represent particular elements in the community, they are usually extra-governmental units whose activities are aimed at an important, but limited, constituency.

The fact of the matter is that local agencies cannot be expected to participate effectively unless they are given greater control over resources. We have to be prepared to put our dollars where our declarations are. In this respect, it is significant to note that as soon as the new hands in the Department of Labor became familiar with the terms of Section 301(b) of the Manpower Development and Training Act, they moved to implement them. This provision calls for the shift to the States of discretionary authority over 20 percent of the basic MDTA apportionment, within an overall Federal-State planning system.

Normal Channels Bypassed

Moving the center of gravity of manpower administration away from Washington also means that greater participation and authority must be afforded to formally constituted governmental units and elected officials. Too often manpower programs have bypassed the normal channels of government and executive responsibility. Consequently, they have failed to gain the support of the wider community. Assigning a leadership role to elected officials should mean that manpower programs will move to the center of the stage where they can be coordinated effectively with related activities such as vocational education, welfare, and vocational rehabilitation.

This does not mean that these elected officials and government units are, or will become, free agents. It is important to establish supplementary procedures to insure that in manpower, as in other areas, there is a continuing dialogue between the elected officials and the constituencies they serve. Also, the Federal Government should preserve its steward-

Mr. Weber is Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower.

ship by retaining the capacity to review local plans, to provide technical assistance as required, and to review the performance of State and local manpower programs.

Nonetheless, governments are established to govern and there are no theoretical reasons to conclude that the scope of governmental activities at the State and local levels should somehow exclude manpower programs. To the contrary, manpower programs should constitute an important aspect of State and community responsibilities. We cannot condemn State and local governments for failing to accept these responsibilities if we have refused to give these institutions the tools and resources to do the job.

Manpower programs in this country developed in the context of an old—or at least middle-aged—Federalism which assumed that State and local institutions were unwilling or unable to cope with contemporary social problems. The New Federalism is based on the expectation that there is a renewed capacity for action at the State and local levels. An examination of the recent record of the State employment security agencies persuades me that this expectation will be realized.

If the New Federalism is founded on the belief that Federal programs should be adapted to local needs, it also recognizes that local institutions must respond to and support efforts to achieve national goals. The Federal Government has a clear responsibility to be sensitive to issues and problems which transcend particular communities and to mobilize resources to bring to bear on these problems. The same professional analysis that supports the judgment that State and local institutions should be directly involved in manpower programs also leads to the conclusion that many problems cannot be solved effectively at the local level but instead require a broader scope of action.

For example, the manpower problems arising from the migration of labor from rural to urban areas must be addressed on a regional and national basis. Thus, the New Federalism does not contemplate the abdication of Federal responsibility or initiative. It presumes that local institutions will seek to realize national goals to the maximum extent possible, and where they fail to act or are unable to act, the Federal Government will pick up the banner.

In fact, it is misleading to pose any enduring separation between national goals and local needs. National goals inevitably reflect broad assessments of local needs. Developments in the manpower area constitute a prime case in point. The emphasis on national manpower programs grew out of a concern over the impact of automation and other forms of technological change on the distribution of job opportunities in the local labor market and the economy, and also out of a national commitment to extend the concept of equal opportunity to all Americans. These problems are clearly national in scope but local in incidence. Although a national commitment is necessary to mobilize the necessary resources, the solutions must take place within the local context. Both unemployment and poverty have many causes and these causes can be attacked only by tailoring programs to the needs of the community.

The New Federalism in manpower administration should involve a three-way partnership among the Federal Government, the States, and city governments. When the concept of Federalism was initially formulated at the beginning of the 19th century we were an agricultural nation. A few centers of trade and manufacture existed, but the bulk of our population and economic activity was broadly dispersed throughout and among the individual States. Today we are a preponderantly urban nation—an observation that is trite but bears repetition. A large majority of our population and our labor force lives, works, and seeks to make its way in life in an urban environment.

Problems Linked to Cities

The process of urbanization has been a continuing one for more than a century; even if it were to be stopped right now the fortunes of the Nation would be inextricably related to the fortunes of the cities. To the usual problems caused by the development of large agglomerations of people in industry the additional problem of race has been added. Clearly, to solve the problems of race and employment, it is necessary to solve the problems of the city while recognizing that many of the cities' problems can be averted by insuring that effective manpower programs are in place in rural areas as well. To recognize the importance of the cities for manpower planning and administration does not mean that we will ignore the needs of rural areas. Rather, it means that our programs must reflect the fact that neither rural nor urban manpower problems can be solved independently.

Anyone active in public affairs is, of course, painfully aware that relationships between State and city governments are less than ideal. Politics, bureaucratic considerations, and historical animosities often prevent or undermine constructive relations between city and State governments. However, similar tensions have sometimes strained relations between Washington and the State capitals, and somehow both levels of government have managed to move ahead on a constructive basis.

Within the framework of the New Federalism, the planning and administration of manpower programs would take place at the municipal and the State levels. The parties would be required to develop a comprehensive plan that serves the needs of the State as a whole and therefore of the Nation. Primary responsibility for reviewing the plan and insuring performance would lie with the State. Under this arrangement, the comprehensive manpower agency—built upon the resources and competence of the employment security system—would be the

New Federalism *continued*

presumptive deliverer of manpower services funded through the Act at both the State and local levels.

The concept of the New Federalism in the administration of manpower programs places great emphasis on performance. The shift of authority and resources from the Federal Government to the States and cities will be determined by the capacity to perform. Thus, the Manpower Training Act provides for the transfer of authority for the expenditure of funds to be carried out in three stages. These stages reflect the willingness of governments to establish the necessary administrative arrangements and, beyond that, the ability to achieve stated goals. Since the specific goals will be established with State and local participation, this burden should not be onerous. The belief in the need for decentralization of manpower programs arises from the judgment that the performance of Federal agencies in the manpower area is intrinsically limited because of the complexity and variation of local conditions.

Effective Consultation Essential

To realize the potential of the New Federalism as applied to manpower programs, there must be effective consultation between the Federal Government, which provides resources and ultimately defines national goals, and those State and local agencies responsible for achieving these goals. Obviously, there has to be close coordination in the planning process. In addition, there must be consultation in the establishment of new program directions either through legislation or by administrative action.

Consultation does not always mean acquiescence. Each agency of government has its own perspective and interests, and differences of opinion will persist. However, the procedures contemplated by the proposed Manpower Training Act make it more likely that formal consultation will take place and that any differences can be considered at a stage when something can be done about them.

It should not be implied that the New Federalism in the manpower area, or in any other area for that matter, will dissipate completely the tensions that exist between the Federal Government and other levels of government. Such tensions will always be present and, indeed, they protect against complacency or delusions of omniscience. The main objective of manpower officials should not be to enter into a period of bureaucratic bliss but to help assure that those tensions and conflicts that do arise are turned to creative purposes from which everyone can gain. Local, State, and Federal officials alike should recognize that their primary loyalty and efforts must be dedicated to the success of those manpower programs that have been initiated with such great promise in the past few years. At the same time they must forge a new partnership that will help to invigorate established institutions of government. □

Technical

By Harry Kranz

Today the Charlotte (N.C.) Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) is a healthy manpower project, nearing its goal of placing 1,200 hard-core unemployed men and women in jobs. Just 8 months ago it was diagnosed as being seriously—perhaps terminally—ill. The project's recovery can be attributed largely to technical assistance, an increasingly important factor in the Nation's maturing manpower development effort.

Inexperience was the overriding source of trouble at Charlotte. Staff members lacked familiarity with a relatively new umbrella type of delivery system such as CEP, which attempts to pull together all local manpower services for a coordinated attack on the job problems of the poor. There were weaknesses in such crucial areas as job development and placement. The CEP was closed down in March while a technical assistance contractor conducted a week-long training workshop.

The staff not only was instructed in general Manpower Administration policy, but also received how-to-do-it lessons in each CEP component, beginning with recruitment clear through to job placement and followup. Modern education methods replaced traditional techniques. Instead of being subjected to straight lectures, staff personnel learned through role-playing and group discussions. Results were apparent quickly. Charlotte CEP director Hoyle Martin credited the workshop with tripling job development and placements in the next 3 weeks.

Technical assistance has saved a number of local manpower projects from failure and has made significant contributions to the improvement of national programs. Perhaps the shortest and best description of what it means was given by Martin when he said technical assistance made his staff "better equipped to do the job."

To understand the growing need for technical assistance, it should be remembered that only in the past 8 years has

Mr. Kranz is coordinator of technical assistance for the Manpower Administration.

Assistance: a friend in need

America turned its attention to the more complex problems of poor people who are unemployed or underemployed. Simply matching jobs with qualified jobseekers is no longer enough. The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 provided for retraining workers in depressed areas. Out of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, and the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, have come such varied and often complicated programs as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, New Careers, and the Work Incentive and Concentrated Employment Programs. In 8 years the Nation's manpower effort has advanced from 20,000 training opportunities to 1.1 million.

As these programs grew in size and complexity, a gap developed between what the law requires manpower agencies to do and their ability to get it done. Each new program has called for the appointment of new personnel from an ever-diminishing supply of trained staff. Today, about 1,500 Federal employees are working with more than 40,000 people at the State and local levels who manage and supervise the day-to-day activities of a wide variety of manpower projects.

These managers and supervisors have encountered, along with the usual problems of budgeting and contracting, such totally new challenges as outreach and the use of subprofessionals. Even the sharpest and most flexible professional sometimes is baffled as he attempts to marshal an array of services—basic education as well as job placement, child care along with transportation—for poor people who seem to speak a different language.

The Manpower Administration for some time has been working on long-range plans to provide on-going technical assistance and training to key personnel of manpower projects. In the interim, outside consultants are being called upon to give specialized assistance where required.

The contractor for the Charlotte CEP was a private profit-making management consultant firm skilled in developing training programs inside and outside government. Knowledge of Federal programs, coupled with experience in aiding businesses to iron out kinks in management, enabled the consultant to obtain decisive results in the two main problems facing local manpower project managers —program content and administration.

Crucial Questions

Local project directors continually are assailed with problems in these two categories. On the administrative side, they are confronted with such elementary but crucial questions as: How do you hire staff? Do you give them 2 weeks vacation or 4? How do you keep track of the money? How do you fill out the necessary Federal reports? How do you relate to other projects? How can you avoid duplication? How do you work out which agency does what?

Questions about program substance often are more baffling: How do you counsel an inarticulate poor man whose value system is different from yours? How do you set up effective orientation systems? Should enrollees be given remedial education through lectures or through some participative system? Would a labor mobility component be helpful or would

it be best to keep participants in their home communities? How do you reach employers? Should you appeal to their pocketbooks or to their social consciences? And is it better to try to sell them face to face or can you rely on printed or broadcast appeals?

The 20 technical assistance contractors currently helping with these questions are as varied as the questions themselves. One of them, a private management consultant firm, was described recently by FORTUNE magazine as the "world's largest consulting group, with about 1,200 professionals." Another consultant, whose specialty is teaching persons with local project experience but not much formal training to be manpower specialists, is a nonprofit organization funded by the Ford Foundation and the Department of Labor. Others are professional groups such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the U.S. Conference of Mayors.

The nature of the problem to be solved determines who is called upon for technical assistance. When the service needed is one that a number of firms could perform satisfactorily, the contract is awarded on competitive bids. Often, however, a contract is negotiated with a firm uniquely qualified to accomplish a particular task. The International Association of Chiefs of Police, for example, is helping implement manpower programs to train the disadvantaged for law enforcement jobs.

Technical assistance contractors sometimes are hired at the outset of a program to provide the extra punch needed to translate national policy into effective projects at the local level. One contractor, a nonprofit organization, played an important role in moving the Work Incentive Program (WIN) off the drawing board into the field. WIN, now less than 2 years old, helps welfare clients prepare for and find permanent jobs. The consultant's staff helped the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare develop a training plan and materials for local project officials. Then consultants and Manpower Administration specialists visited 19 cities to help get local projects moving.

Part of the training package was WIN's "team concept." Each new WIN participant is assigned to a five-man team of manpower experts, which includes a counselor, a job developer, a work and training specialist, a coach, and a clerk typist. The key man is the coach, who "mother hens" the participant through education, training, and the other components of the program. The consultant was instrumental in selling local WIN project directors on the idea of using men and women drawn from welfare neighborhoods as coaches. Neighborhood residents, the consultant pointed out, would make up for their lack of college degrees by their superior knowledge of the community. The consultants also maintained that neighborhood residents would be especially effective in communicating with participants and in getting the cooperation of first-line supervisors upon whom hopes for success ultimately rested.

The consultant's representatives were able to argue with special persuasiveness since many of them lacked degrees but had worked successfully as coaches themselves. They made their case and most of the 200 WIN projects now operating throughout the Nation employ teams with coaches drawn from the target population.

Diagnosing the Illness

Technical assistance contractors often can be compared to doctors. They visit an ailing program, diagnose the illness, prescribe the remedy, and help administer the treatment.

One consultant, dispatched to a poorly run Neighborhood Youth Corps project in Florida, identified the difficulty as inadequate leadership and lack of program structure. At the contractor's recommendation, each youngster was properly tested, given a medical exam, counseled and encouraged to resume his education, and assured of adequate work experience and job development services. In the general reorganization, a permanent project

director was hired to replace the inexperienced acting director.

In another Florida city, the CEP had an unusually high dropout rate for men. The outside consultant discovered that orientation was the bottleneck. It was tightly structured and the atmosphere was too close to that of a traditional classroom. The rules in class were more suited for children than grown men and women. And finally, the orientation staff lacked understanding of the disadvantaged adults they were supposed to be instructing. Upon the recommendation of the contractor, the CEP director dismissed the outside organization responsible for orientation and staffed the new component with his own employees. The bottleneck disappeared.

Contractors with extensive experience in private business can be particularly effective in developing management talent. One management consultant firm, with many blue ribbon clients in business and industry, recently demonstrated that lack of experience is not an insurmountable barrier for a bright man with drive. Assigned to the CEP in a western city, the firm's specialists found that the new coach supervisor was a 25-year-old former recreation leader with some experience at handling youngsters at play but none at all in overseeing adults at work. Within 10 days of being hired he had put together a team of coaches. They were, to say the least, unconventional. Three were known as troublemakers. Another was only 20, had a police record, and was rated by previous employers as undependable. Even the CEP director, accustomed to dealing with the disadvantaged, was uneasy.

But the management consultants went beyond surface appearances. They discovered that all the coach candidates were self-starters. And all of them were anxious to participate personally in helping the poor. They lacked polish but not interest and ability. With the aid of the consultants, the coach supervisor was able to overcome the director's reluctance. After the coaches were hired, the supervisor convinced them that they had to do a superb job to surmount the skepticism. He was so successful in this task that he became acting project director when his former boss moved on to a better job.

Next to the Concentrated Employment Program, the manpower effort that has received the greatest amount of technical assistance during the past year has been New Careers. Six organizations, including three national professional associations, have been enlisted to help make it work. The need of heavy outside support is understandable in light of the complex nature of New Careers. The program involves the training and placement of disadvantaged persons in newly created jobs as professional aids, in either government agencies or nonprofit organizations. An essential element in all New Careers jobs is that they offer opportunity for advancement through a built-in career ladder.

New Careers Model

To help develop a model New Careers project in Bridgeport, Conn., the Manpower Administration called in a private corporation organized solely to give technical aid to Federal antipoverty agencies. Representatives of the agency selected to run the model project and the consultant's staffers worked together from the inception of the program until it was firmly established. They jointly:

- Designed and developed the project for Labor Department approval.
- Generated support for its goals with potential employing agencies.
- Worked with State agencies to develop statewide career ladders.
- Designed a self-evaluation system for the project.

Today, nearly 70 New Careerists work for the city of Bridgeport as aids in the Department of Welfare, the local public housing project, the Concentrated Employment Program, and the board of education. Entry salaries are $4,700 and some of the graduates are now earning more. A local community college has tailored its curriculum to enable the trainee workers to complete their high school education and go to college.

Advanced education is one of the keystones of New Careers and is regarded as an indispensable supplement to on-the-job training in advancing professional aids up the career ladder. Technical assistance contractors have proved particularly valuable in strengthening the education component. Some of the concrete results:

- The University of New Mexico now offers academic credit for supervised on-the-job training for New Careerists. The university also has developed a 2-year associate of arts degree in human services, the only 2-year degree it offers. There are no formal entrance requirements for aspirants to the associate of arts degree.
- The University of Colorado is training New Careerists from the Oglala Sioux Reservation in South Dakota and is planning to offer extension courses on the reservation for tribal members.
- In Waco, Tex., the New Careers project officers have been made staff members of the city's McLennan Community College. McLennan has established a New Careers Department and given it equal status with its other departments.

In less than 2 years, the Manpower Administration has learned a lot about technical assistance. Technical advisers and consultants have brought to bear on difficult problems specialized skills, objectivity, and fresh viewpoint. The growing need for technical assistance can be met over the long run in a number of ways: Expanded use of outside consultants, a combination of outside experts and Government specialists, or the establishment of national and regional Manpower Administration technical assistance training centers. But regardless of how it is provided, technical assistance will continue to be an important tool in shaping solutions to the Nation's manpower problems. □

Union Connects Jobs and Workers

The International Union of Electrical, Radio & Machine Workers (IUE) is making a richer life possible for thousands of men and women at the bottom of the job ladder. IUE in the past 3½ years has placed and arranged for training of more than 2,200 unemployed and underemployed men and women in good-paying jobs as electrical workers in factories in eight States. About two-thirds of the trainees were new hires. The rest were upgraded to better jobs or retrained for different ones. Most of them were high school dropouts; one-third were women; and a little more than half were Negroes or Spanish-speaking Americans.

Mrs. Juanita Dansby, for example, was earning less than $50 a week in a hospital before entering the program. IUE placed her in training as a regulator assembler at the Leland Airborne Products plant in Dayton, Ohio. Her earnings rose to $120 a week.

"I never thought I would know this much about electronics or have the opportunity to earn this high a wage," said Mrs. Dansby, mother of two children.

A plus to the union has been the added respect it has won from management. "It's been a real good project," said G. J. Chopp, industrial relations director of Stromberg-Carlson, Rochester, a subsidiary of General Dynamics. "We're high on it. Because it came to us under the auspices of the union, you can bet we took a real close look at it. They know that."

Cutting Red Tape

Taking care of the red tape for the companies where the trainees worked was one of the union's primary functions. Owen Hoey, the union's project director, and his staff of field coordinators established with the State employment services the need for training people in certain labor shortage occupations. They persuaded employers to sign a declaration of interest, negotiated the contracts, and worked with the employment service to recruit the disadvantaged. They also enlisted the advice and consent of IUE locals in the individual companies.

As a result, men and women who had never had decent jobs before went to work for such companies as Bendix and Emerson as chassis assemblers and system testers. And people already at work in such dead-end jobs as janitors, stockpushers, and laborers became television cabinet finishers, cable makers, and machine operators at wages of from $2.35 to $4.30 an hour.

Emerson found the program "particularly advantageous in training people from within to do higher jobs," according to P. R. Certo, industrial relations director. "We were at our wit's end to get people who could do finishing work on our cabinets. We were able to train and upgrade employees to handle this work through the program. We also used it to train final testers to do troubleshooting work on black and white television sets and then to train black and white troubleshooters to handle color sets."

In most cases, he added, this upgrading has meant "substantial improvement" in income for the workers.

Emerson, which has trained or upgraded nearly 250 men and women through the IUE project, wants to do more. "We're hoping to use the program in new job areas in the future," said Certo. "We'd like to use it in connection with a basic course in electronics, which will provide knowledge and skills the employee can build on."

IUE is qualified to help Emerson in this enterprise, judging by past history. It all began in the spring of 1966 when the Labor Department granted IUE a $156,000 promotion and development contract to arrange for on-the-job training for 1,300 disadvantaged men and women. The union, after passing the 1,400 mark, signed a second contract, this time a regular on-the-job training agreement for $657,000, in December 1967. By September 1969, more than 800 had been trained under the second contract, and the Manpower Administration had agreed to give the union $100,000 more to train an additional 1,000 persons.

The record to date has been good. The dropout rate under the first contract was only 4 percent, and thus far on the second it has been 10 percent.

The Labor Department and IUE recently signed a third contract, strictly for upgrading. About 7,000 IUE members now on the job in factories in nine cities will be given additional education and and skill training. The $170,000 promotion and development contract will enable the union, with the aid of several major universities, to develop a practical program of improvement for its rank-and-file members.

Upgrading Emphasized

The shift in emphasis to upgrading fits in with current Labor Department planning and with union needs. "At first, we felt that providing job opportunities for the hard core would help people and the economy in general and we concentrated mostly on new hires," said William Gary, administrative assistant to IUE's president and project administrator. "The new contract, on the other hand, is for a different purpose. Because so much was being done for the hard core and the blacks, the guys who were employed in dead-end jobs complained that nothing was being done for them. So we came up with the education proposal for the 7,000."

IUE takes considerable pride in being one of the first unions tapped by the Department of Labor to embark on a national manpower development and training program. IUE International President Paul Jennings feels that unions often fail to get recognition for their efforts to fight unemployment and poverty.

"From the time of its founding 20 years ago, IUE has been concerned with opening up job opportunities for members of minority groups," Jennings said. "Long before present public and private efforts to help the disadvantaged, IUE locals were fighting for no-discrimination commitments and practices by employers."

Cablemaker Julien Oritz puts his training to work wrapping wires for a telephone cable harness.

Union
continued

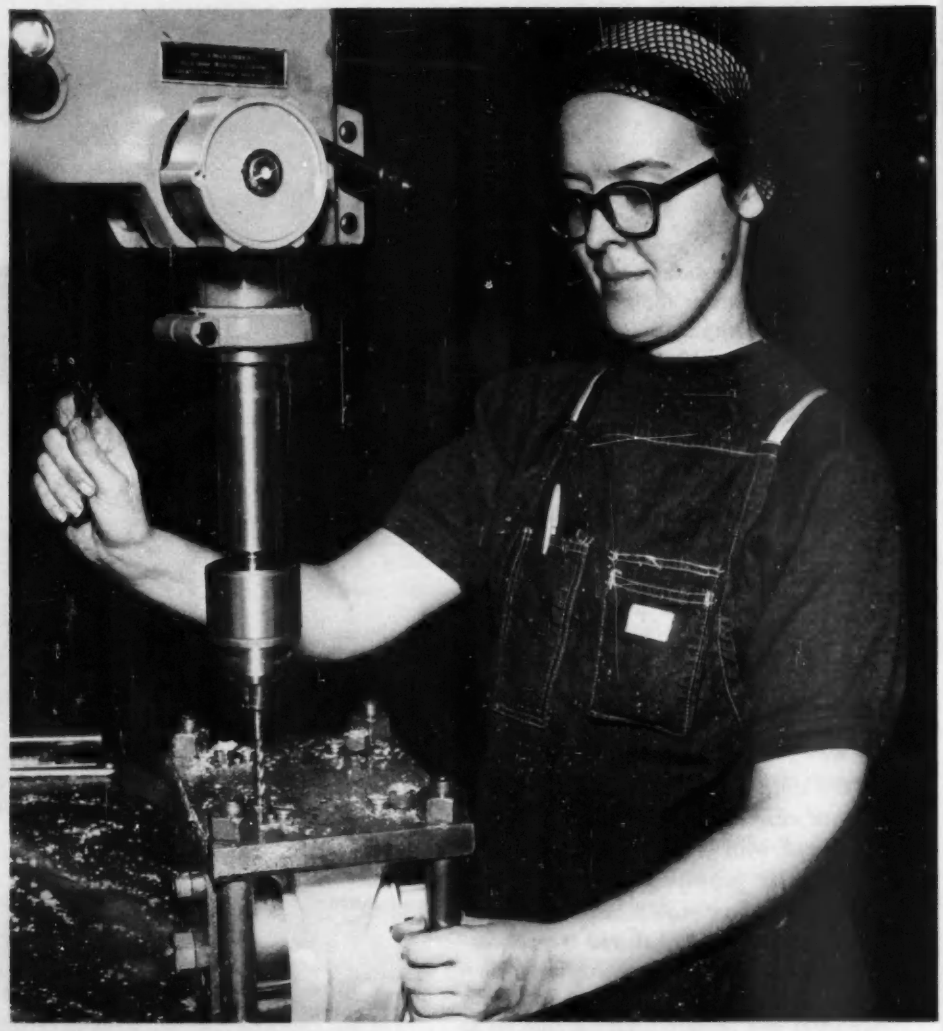
When IUE signed its first training contract with the Labor Department in May 1966, Jennings appointed Gary, then director of the union's social action department as overall coordinator of the program. The nuts-and-bolts work was delegated to Hoey, a former local president, who was named project coordinator.

Hoey carefully put together a staff of six district coordinators, selected from union members granted leaves of absence from their companies to work on the project. These men had an average of 15 years' union service, 7½ years in community relations, and almost 9 years of teaching and training experience. One man was assigned to cover New York and New Jersey, the other five each took one State — Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Ohio, Illinois, and Missouri. A coordinator later was assigned to Indiana when a training project was launched there.

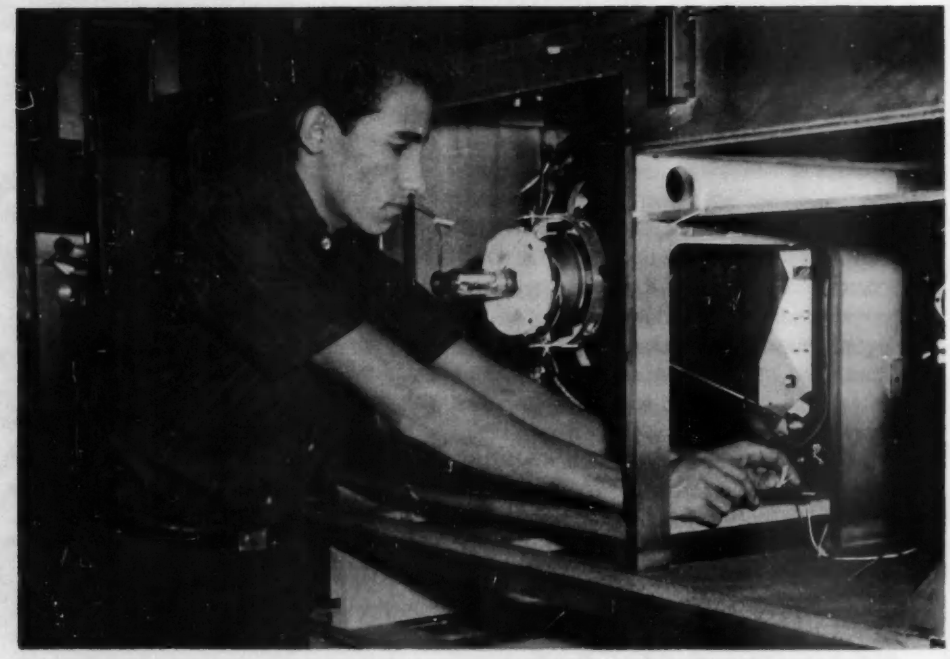
Training Funds Obtained

The coordinators were brought to Washington and trained with the aid of Department of Labor experts in contract work. Their first job when they returned to their districts was to establish with the State employment service the need for training people in certain labor-shortage occupations. Then they had to convince employers to provide the training.

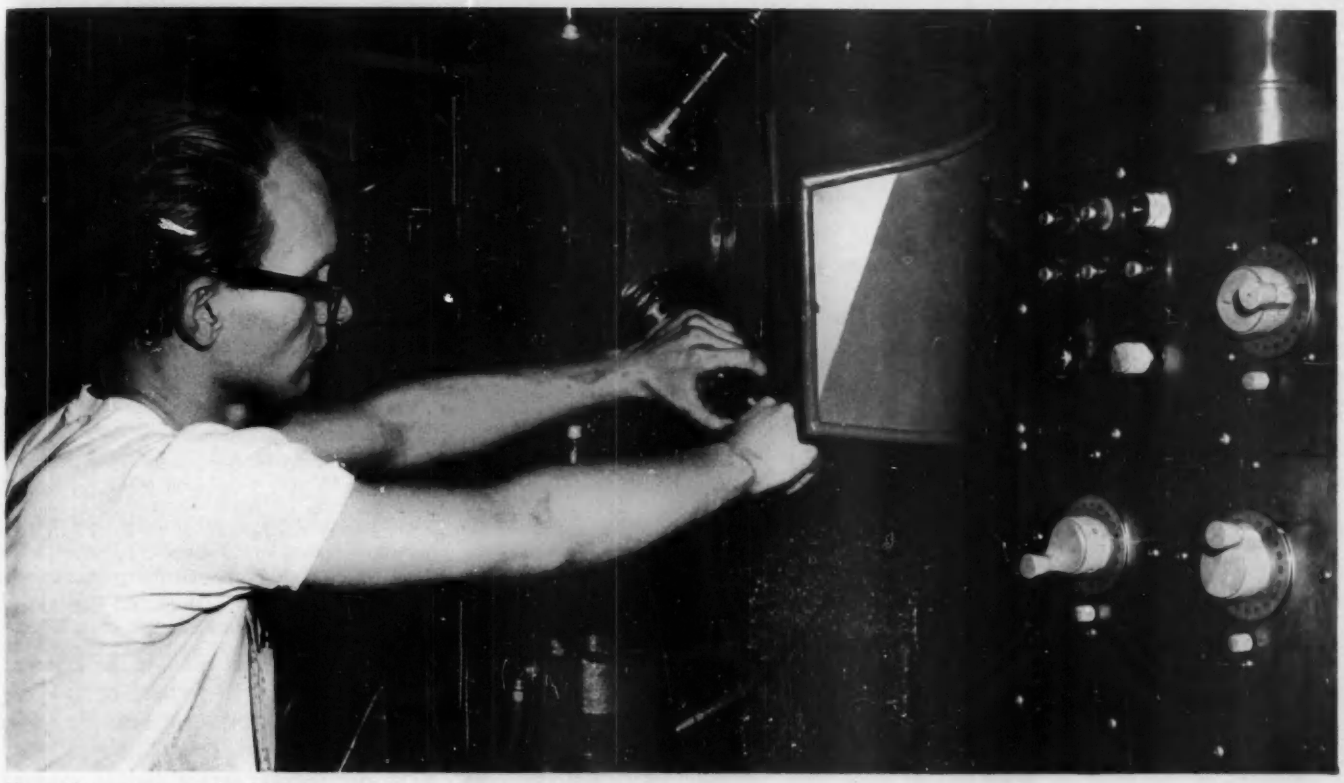
The final step was tracking down training money. Promotion and development contracts cover only administrative costs; they do not include funds to carry out the actual training. Consequently, the union obtained the cooperation of such interested organizations as the Urban League and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, which had on hand training money from the Department of Labor and the Office of Economic Opportunity. The union brought available funds (about $194,000), the employers, and the trainees together.



Machinist training qualified Dotty Ramsey to operate a drill press.



Connecting circuits on a conveyer line is part of Alipio Roario's preparation to be a television set assembler.



Upgrading program helped Bill Sannes advance from grinder to machinist.

"We were the catalysts," said Hoey.

The entire setup was streamlined for the second contract. The union requested and received training money from the Labor Department, so it did not have to approach interested companies with empty hands. The coordinators negotiated 26 agreements with 17 employers under the first contract, and 25 agreements with 19 companies under the second.

The first contract produced the "buddy" system, now widely used by employers training the disadvantaged under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program. IUE originated the concept in 1966 and called it "Building Up Dignity Depends on You," from which the name buddy was derived.

"We based it on a one-to-one relationship," said Gary. "The man already on the job was persuaded to help the new man—or woman. We introduced the newcomer as an individual, not a hard-core case." It was the buddy's job to get the new man (or woman) to work if necessary, to counsel him, and to keep up his spirits.

IUE had no money for supportive services. That helps account for the comparatively low cost of the first two projects, a total of $1.1 million for an estimated 3,200 trainees (about $350 per trainee) to be placed by the close of the second contract, which is still operating.

Another factor in the low cost was the caliber of the recruits. Gary admits they were not the hardest of the hard core. "Many of them were perfectly capable people who had been held back out of sheer racial discrimination," he said. "They hadn't had a chance to work in a decent job."

To open up jobs for the trainees, the union attacked irrelevant educational requirements which had screened out the disadvantaged, particularly blacks and Spanish Americans. "In many cases, we persuaded employers to lower these requirements," said Gary. "A high school education is not necessary for most factory jobs."

Racial barriers also came tumbling down. One company in Memphis had only four nonwhite employees. After the first contract 76 blacks were on the payroll. A company in Ohio had never had a nonwhite worker in production operations. Within 6 months of signing up for the program, it had 59 blacks aboard, all in jobs paying a minimum of $2.75 an hour. A Massachusetts firm upgraded one Negro to foreman and another to assistant personnel director.

Training time varies, depending on the recruit's job readiness and the trade for which he is preparing. Eight chassis assemblers at Bendix were trained in 8 weeks. Stromberg-Carlson required 52 weeks (only 12 of them at Government expense) to train 14 automatic screw machine operators. Some instructors were provided by the employers, some by the union.

One of the factors prompting the union's interest in training was the need to help IUE members displaced by advancing technology. As an example, Hoey cited a unit produced at a company where he once served as the local union president. The unit originally was about the size of a telephone booth and was produced by 15 persons working 8 weeks. Today the same product is about 15 inches square and a half inch thick, and a single worker can make it in 1 week.

Stromberg-Carlson added a warning note about this same problem early this year in a letter to Hoey which said: "The change from electro mechanical to electronic switching is resulting in an obsolescence of skills now possessed by many of our production and inspection employees. Retraining and upgrade training programs will be necessary to effectively combat this situation."

Edith Horn practices her soldering technique.

So far about 17 percent of those trained under the second contract have been taught new skills. For some union members the training came just in time. The Bendix plant in Franklin, Ind., for example, needed 38 workers for a new product line. Bendix was persuaded by the union not to hire help from the outside, but to retrain present employees in danger of being laid off because their jobs were marked for elimination.

The training has not been confined to urban areas. Stromberg-Carlson needed skilled workers to move from area to area building and installing central telephone exchange equipment for the independent telephone industry. When the firm had trouble recruiting men for these jobs at its Rochester home base, it decided to recruit and train in economically depressed rural areas around the Nation.

Working through the IUE program, field training operations were set up in Brookings, S. Dak., Everett, Wash., Tampa and Eustis, Fla., and Ardmore, Okla. Men were recruited—usually through the the State employment service—not only from the vicinity of the training sites but also from poverty-stricken areas of West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, and Ohio. Those who had to relocate were given allowances and all were paid $2 an hour while learning on the job from 10 to 15 weeks. After training they were moved into regular jobs that pay up to $4.30 an hour plus fringe benefits and travel allowances. Of 84 men recruited and trained in this manner, only five have dropped out.

Most of the new workers have made steady progress. One 40-year-old married man with a child, Earl Curry, of Racine, W. Va., was a $1.70-an-hour laborer when recruited. Today he earns $2.35 an hour, plus 15 percent in fringe benefits, and receives $70 a week living allowance. Robert Young, a 24-year-old married veteran with one child, formerly worked as a mail clerk for $1.50 an hour, in Tampa, Fla. He is now up to $2.52 an hour plus fringes and per diem.

Robert Flood, Stromberg-Carlson skills training director, said that although most of those recruited through the seven field locations were high school dropouts, they learned quickly. "It was intricate work but most of them were used to working with their hands," he said. "If you took an analytical, step-by-step approach, they responded rapidly. You can't just have them watch somebody else do it; you have to let them do it themselves. We did, and they learned it well."

IUE officials point out that the union's program does not relieve the employer of normal training expenses. Under the contracts, employers received $12 to $25 a week per trainee, which usually covers less than half the costs.

Setbacks Acknowledged

The union acknowledges that the program has had failures as well as successes. A Rochester corporation trained 16 people with poor job histories as paper line assemblers but had to lay them off because of a contract cancellation. A Brooklyn firm trained 10 young women for coil winding jobs in television manufacturing. Only three of them are still with the company. The rest had had little or no experience with assembly work and could not adjust to it.

Overall, however, the dropout rate for the first two projects has been very low and the job performance of the trainees has been good. IUE now is pushing ahead with its new upgrading project. Gary feels that in some ways it will be even more effective than past programs for helping the poor.

"Moving our own people up will vacate jobs for new entries into the labor force," he said. "It's a cycle. Our original motivation was that we wanted to do something for the hard core. We thought jobs were the answer to racial unrest and poverty. We know better now. Low-level jobs alone won't do it. A guy has to know he can move ahead. A job becomes undesirable when it has no future. A man feels he can do just as well on welfare." □

News & Notes

The list of cities in which computerized Job Banks will be established this fiscal year has been expanded to 55 instead of the 36 originally planned. Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz made the announcement at the inauguration of the Nation's seventh Job Bank in Washington, D.C. Others are already operating in Baltimore, Chicago, St. Louis, Portland, Seattle, and Hartford, Conn.

* * *

A pilot project to lure inactive medical technologists back into the job market has been funded by the U.S. Department of Labor. Technologists who are not working will be recruited and offered refresher training courses under a 1-year $31,000 contract granted the National Committee for Careers in Medical Technology. About 200 technologists will be recruited in Atlanta and Baltimore and in the States of California, New Jersey, and Washington.

* * *

Nearly 10,000 draft rejectees were placed in jobs, training, or other programs in the first 6 months of 1969 by the Manpower Administration. Through the public employment service, jobs were found for 5,237; another 2,368 were enrolled in skill training programs; 400 were persuaded to return to school; and 1,651 were referred to other agencies for various supportive and rehabilitative services.

* * *

More than 70,000 welfare recipients were enrolled in the Work Incentive Program (WIN) between its inception in September 1968 and July 1, 1969. More than 1,300 had completed their employability plan by July 1 and nearly 2,900 had dropped out. The remainder were still enrolled. WIN provides job training and placement for welfare recipients.

* * *

Frank A. (Tod) Potter has been named to head the new Manpower Administration regional office in Denver. The region comprises Colorado, Montana, North and South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming. Potter has been director of farm labor and rural manpower programs, U.S. Training and Employment Service, in Washington, D.C., for the past 7 years.

More than 4,100 men and women prison inmates are in training or scheduled for training in a wide variety of jobs. The U.S. Department of Labor demonstration program attempts to teach prisoners skills that will make them employable when released. It is now operating in 40 institutions in 24 States, with funding of more than $5.2 million.

* * *

The Pennsylvania Employment Service recently made what was probably a record for long-distance placement. It recruited a linotype operator from Brisbane, Australia, to work for a Lehighton, Pa., newspaper. The linotyper, Albert McDivitt, a former Pennsylvania resident, had moved to Australia with his family in 1954. He responded to an ad in a national magazine urging former natives of the Keystone State to "Come Back to Pennsylvania." His inquiry was forwarded to the State employment service which made the placement through its local office in Williamsport.

* * *

Project Transition, a Defense Department program to prepare military personnel for civilian work, will train 400 servicemen to take police jobs after they are discharged. The police training, which will be given in the last 6 months of the servicemen's military tour of duty, is being funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act. The International Association of Chiefs of Police will develop and supervise the training program.

* * *

A 17-year-old Job Corpsman, Joseph C. Canada, has received the Carnegie Medal for Heroism and a $750 cash award. The presentation was made by Governor John A. Burns of Hawaii. Canada and a companion battled a raging Hawaiian surf for 3 hours on April 14, 1968, to save the life of a 9-year-old boy. "I am proud to add my congratulations," Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz wrote to Canada. "Yours is a great deed. All of us in the Department of Labor are proud of you."

Publications

Following is a selected list of periodicals published by the U.S. Department of Labor. Unless otherwise indicated, single copies can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. For publications not available free and for multiple copies of all priced items, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment

Monthly publication which classifies 150 major labor areas of the country in six labor supply categories. Carries a monthly statistical supplement providing data on work force, unemployment, and employment in these areas and a listing of firms which have been certified as eligible for preference in Federal procurement contract awards. Summary table on nonagricultural job openings in selected occupations is published periodically.

Employment and Wages

Quarterly with statistics on employment and wages of workers covered by State unemployment insurance laws and of Federal workers covered by unemployment compensation.

Employment Service Statistics

Monthly compilation of data on placements, job openings and referrals, employer services, counseling and testing, and other selected activities of the Federal-State employment service system.

Unemployment Insurance Statistics

Monthly with data collected and reported under unemployment insurance programs and Federal programs covering Federal civilian employees and ex-servicemen. Data include benefit payment activities, employer contributions, appeals decisions, and disqualifications for selected industries and occupations.

Farm Labor Developments

Published about five or six times a year. Contains articles on such topics as seasonal employment, hired farmworkers, rural manpower, and other farm labor matters. Employment and wage tables also are included.

Benefit Series Service—Unemployment Insurance

A loose-leaf reference service that contains administrative and court decisions on major unemployment insurance issues and related material, by State. New case material issued monthly. Useful to persons working on appeals for unemployment insurance benefits and others interested in the unemployment insurance program. $5 (binders not included). No free copies available.

Performance

Monthly magazine of the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped. Covers progress in nationwide program to provide employment opportunities for all handicapped workers; new promotional and educational ideas and activities for the handicapped; and latest developments in fields of rehabilitation and placement of the disabled.

Safety Standards

Bimonthly magazine published by Bureau of Labor Standards. Covers developments in industrial safety, with special reference to activities of States and Federal agencies. Single copies 20 cents; annual subscription $1, foreign mailing $1.25.

Area Wage Surveys

Each year Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys 90 metropolitan areas for data on occupational earnings, establishment practices, and supplementary wage provisions. Individual report on each area (10 or 12 issued each month) gives detailed data by selected industry division. Price varies from 25 to 50 cents. No free copies available.

Occupational Outlook Quarterly

Illustrated periodical published four times a year by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for counselors, teachers, educators, parents, and others who work with young people; students; and people interested in finding or changing jobs. Provides current information on employment trends and outlook. Supplements and brings up to date information in Occupational Outlook Handbook. 45 cents per copy; annual subscription $1.50. No free copies available.

Monthly Labor Review

Monthly publication of the Bureau of Labor Statistics giving comprehensive coverage of entire labor field: Up-to-date information on impact of technological change, prices and living standards, employment and manpower, conciliation and arbitration, wages and salaries, industrial safety, industrial relations, contract clause analysis, trade union developments. Includes statistics section and book review department. Single copies 75 cents; annual subscription $9.00, foreign mailing $11.25. No free copies available.

Employment and Earnings

Monthly publication of Bureau of Labor Statistics giving current national statistics on labor force, employment, unemployment, hours, earnings, and labor turnover; State and area statistics on employment by major industry division, and hours, earnings, and labor turnover for manufacturing. Data are presented in summary, charts, and tables. Single copies 65 cents; yearly subscription $7.50, foreign mailing $9.50. No free copies available.

Labor Developments Abroad

Monthly publication of Bureau of Labor Statistics. Presents research information on recent labor developments in foreign countries. Based on reports from American Foreign Service posts, publications of foreign governments, foreign press, and experts in international labor developments. Single copy 25 cents; annual subscription $2.75, foreign mailing $3.50. No free copies available.

Manpower

Monthly publication of the Manpower Administration. Covers broad spectrum of programs and developments in job training and employment, including efforts to aid the disadvantaged, upgrading, vocational education, research, and hiring of the physically and mentally retarded. Single copy 65 cents; annual subscription $7.50, foreign mailing $9.50.

Reprints are available of the following articles from recent issues of MANPOWER:

Volunteers: Report on an American Tradition

Reviews growth of voluntarism in U.S. and gives findings of study by U.S. Department of Labor on unpaid volunteer work for welfare of society.

Making Better Use of Health Personnel

Discusses manpower problems of the health care field and how training is helping to alleviate them. Makes several suggestions for improving size and quality of health services labor force.

A Year of Awakening

An interview with Leo Beebe on his experiences and observations as executive vice chairman of the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program during its first year of operation.

Six Steps to Jobs for Epileptics

Report on an experimental and demonstration project funded by the U.S. Department of Labor and run by the Epilepsy Foundation of America to explore problems which confront epileptics in their search for work and ways to overcome them.

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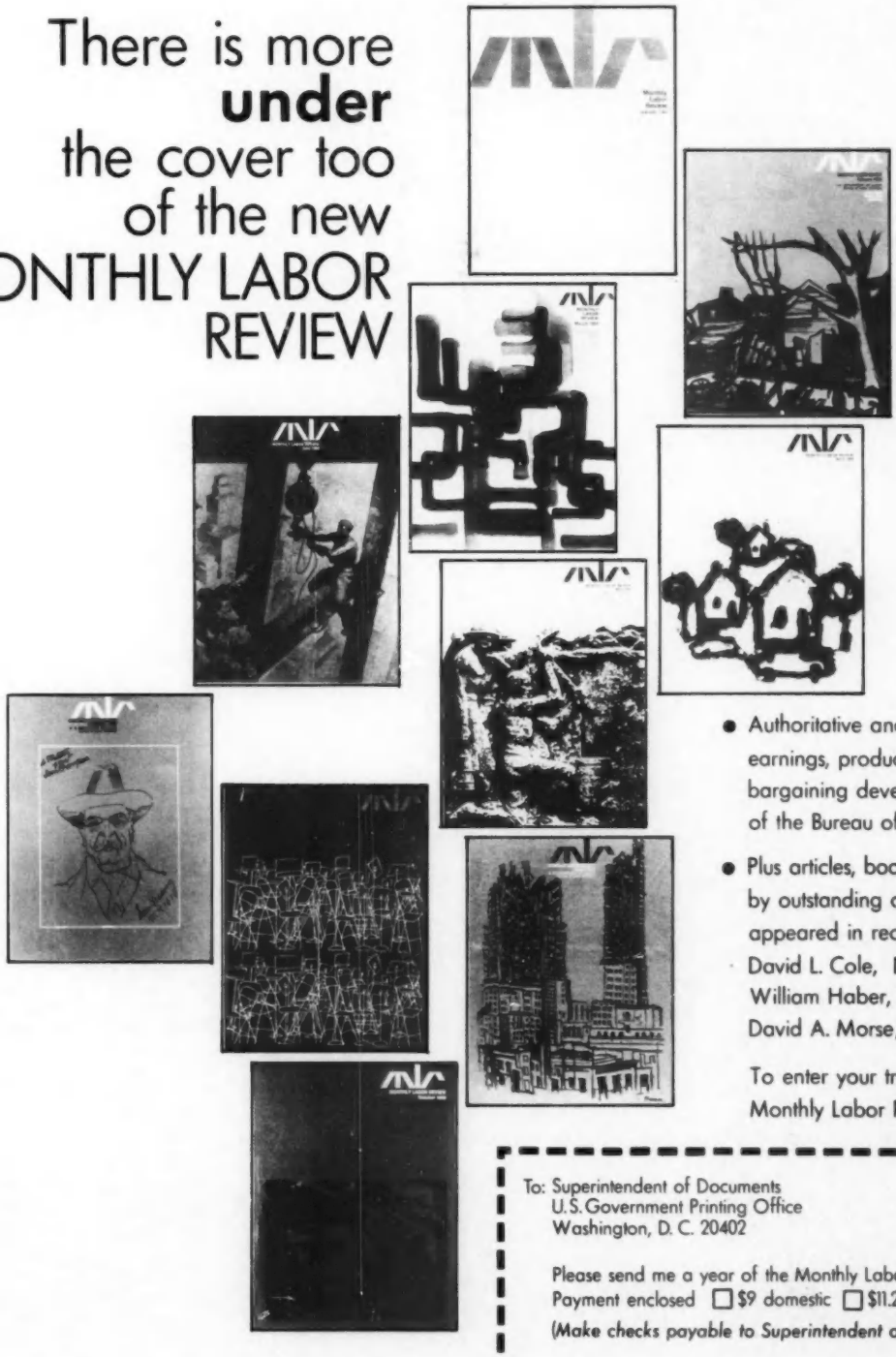

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